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THE RHETORICAL MOOD OF WORLD WAR II

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IF THE aim of rhetoric is to persuade by means of logical, ethical and pathetical proofs, it is only a variant on this to say that rhetoric should produce a mood. The successful rhetorician has an instinctive sense for the mood of the company he is in, and whether he wishes to intensify or change it, he must know the language of the various moods. We often say that the language of the emotions is timeless and placeless; that a dog, for instance, knows a face he can trust, knows the difference always and everywhere between anger and affection. The implication would be that Dr. Johnson and Wordsworth would speak the same language to a dog. But we all know that to the slightly subtler human intelligence the language of the emotions does change. Literary critics unmindful of this will hold up to scorn the writers of the eighteenth century, for example, as lacking in all sincere feeling. They will take Dryden's rewriting of Chaucer and say confidently that Chaucer was sincere and that Dryden was a rhetorical fraud. Or, of late, as we drift farther away from the romantics and are perhaps nearer the eighteenth century in our fondness for satire, we poke fun at the "romantic agony," and declare that no one ever really felt as Shelley wrote. But to do this is to ignore the changes in the language of the emotions.

The stage offers, perhaps, better illustrations. The great fun of revivals is that they offer us a chance to laugh at our predecessors in a superior way—as we shall be laughed at in turn. The spectacle of history as a succession of generations laughing at their predecessors does not seem to add to the dignity of human nature, and we try to remedy the situation by declaring that no one shall laugh at Shakespeare, or Homer, or the King James Bible. But these great works continue to hold our respect, not because of one timeless element, but because they are so complex that every generation can find its own image there, and become sober with self-respect.

May I further illustrate the obvious on a lower level by reference to three plays that I have recently seen? One, a melodrama, was the oft-repeated burlesque of the language and gestures of the Nineties. The sentimental speeches in praise of love and virtue were delivered in such a manner that it was at times difficult to determine whether love and virtue were in themselves inevitably ridiculous, or whether it was merely the modes of the moods that were being pilloried. In the successes of Katharine Hep-

burn and the dramatists who write plays for her we have another example of the changing modes of our moods. In *Woman of the Year* we have a sophisticated version of the ancient dogmas that woman's place is in the home, that love is more than fame, and that a good husband is rather to be chosen than great riches. But how cautiously, and with what irreverent wit and gayety are these time-worn themes exposed! About the same may be said of *Without Love*. What we enjoy is the spectacle of a tough-minded woman who is tender in spite of herself. This, at the moment, is the way we like our tenderness. We want our loveliest heroine to have some of the qualities of a top sergeant.

II

All this is intended as a preface to the question, what is the mode of our war mood today? In what language and gestures do we express our feelings, and to what language and gestures do we respond? Have we changed fundamentally since 1917? Wars represent such a return to primitive impulses that we wonder if these fundamental feelings are subject to the same modifications as the literary fashions of publishers' teas or the popular plays of Broadway. George Meredith in his essay on Comedy suggests that only the habits and attitudes of a leisured class lifted above the petty struggles for existence are of interest to a novelist. George Eliot gives the suggestion a satirical turn by having one of her characters remark that earnestness and conviction belong to the lower classes. If dramatic and literary fashions change most on the surface of life, should we expect whole nations to face the poverty, disaster and death of war with the same changes of mood as generations of playgoers?

Those who are old enough to ask these questions from memories of the last war must remind themselves that they are now twenty-five years older, and that perhaps even a war seems very different with such an added weight of years. But are there not evidences of changes in mood other than those wrought by age?

Where are the four-minute men? Where are the parades and bands? Where are the farewell speeches to departing soldiers telling them that they are leaving the hum-drum of peace for the excitement and glory of making the world safe for democracy? Where are the War Aims courses? Why did we sell Defense Bonds instead of Liberty Bonds? Why has the Atlantic Charter, so dramatically proclaimed, excited so little devotion? Why is one of the most widely repeated mottoes of the war, "He who laughs, lasts"? Why have we liked the phrase "Blood, toil, tears, and sweat," from an Englishman, and then proceeded to say that production, or food, will win the war? Why do so many people feel that the best letters from England have appeared in *The New Yorker*? Perhaps, after all, *The New Yorker* is itself the best example of our war mood. But why?

One clue, perhaps, is found in Philip Barry's play *Without Love*. The hero, who has managed, with difficulties, to keep his marriage going without love, is appealing to an Irish leader to provide naval bases for the English. "Of course you don't love them," he says, "you probably never will, but don't you see that you have got to have a marriage without love. You will have to have it to continue to exist." This war is full of marriages of convenience, and that has something of the same effect upon war rhetoric as it does upon other avowals of passion.

Just before we entered the war—or were entered—I attended a meeting of American business men at which a Brit-

ish speaker was pleading for Lend-Lease. During the discussion an Anglophobe said, "Of course we don't expect you to pay us back, but will you even thank us?" "No, I don't suppose so," was the answer, "you will find lots of Londoners saying that we can't endure it to have America win another war; anyway, we aren't asking you to help us, we are just giving you a hint about saving your own skin." This loveless marriage is typical of some views of the relations between England and Russia, England and India, the United States and Russia, and to an even greater degree between American Industry and the New Deal. The ancient philosopher Bion, who advised his disciples to treat all friends as if they might some day be enemies, and all enemies as if they might become friends, may have been a sage, but he was the foe of impassioned utterance.

Another factor affecting our war mood is that the element of choice has been taken from us. We do not "here highly resolve" because it is "root hog or die." When Woodrow Wilson ended his stirring message declaring war with the phrase, "God helping her, she can do no other," he really meant that we could do otherwise, that we were making a free choice, a dignified choice of free men. After Pearl Harbor, we were in the position of Margaret Fuller accepting the universe, and Carlyle's comment, "Egad, she'd better," represented the only appropriate attitude. It was grim rather than heroic.

The rhetoric of a holy war is out for the present. We want to survive, and we believe in the American way of life, but we do not seriously hope to spread it rapidly among all our allies, to say nothing of our enemies, and many have reservations and questionings about the perfection of the American way. It has been said that all democratic wars must be holy wars; that democracies so love peace that only the flaming zeal of a righteous cause can lead us into war. But we have evinced no great zeal for the rights of the natives of Java. Woodrow Wilson was a crusading Covenanter, but we now talk as realistically about rubber and tin and foreign trade as do our enemies. A fight for survival was anciently dignified by appeals to our homes and firesides, to the *Lares* and *Penates*, but that rhetoric is not wholly appropriate for bases in Asia, Africa, and Australia, and it is the enemy who keeps the home fires burning in modern war.

The jingoistic rhetoric of exuberant boasting is out. We have long respected the strength and skill of the Germans, and we cannot successfully pour contempt upon an enemy who has inflicted such defeats upon us as we have suffered from the Japanese. We are rather inclined to cite the boasts of our naval men who wanted to blow the Japs out of the Pacific in three weeks as typical aberrations of the navy mentality, and we now want our fighters to be strong silent men.

The heroism of the defeated is no less glorious than that of the victors, and we cannot help comparing the heroes of Bataan with those of Thermopylae, but even heroism is now taken for granted. It is equally present among friend and foe. We even reproach the Japanese for their fanatical disregard of death, as if it were not quite cricket, or were the product of superstition. The British jibe, "be safe and join the Army," will surely be lived down by British soldiers, but the girls they leave behind them will be just as able to "take it" as they are. To wonder at the heroic seems almost naïve, and Horace's cultivated man, who was to wonder at nothing, will not marvel at one hero lest he be thought ignorant of others.

Some who can discover no appropriate military rhetoric skip the war and talk of winning the peace. But few moving phrases have come from this. One orator proclaimed that he was going to provide us with the "positive, dynamic, all-out, last-ditch concept" that should be equally good for war and peace. He labored and brought forth the phrase that all men are endowed with inalienable rights. This brought forth the retort from a former candidate for the Presidency that this war had nothing to do with concepts, that American soldiers had been killed on American soil, that this was all we knew or needed to know. The phrases that are to win the peace merely start arguments, phrases for winning the peace may lose the war, they revive memories of other phrase-makers and plunge us again into the cynicism of the Twenties.

The era of the perfection of propaganda machinery has apparently plunged us into apathy, an apathy either of scepticism or exhaustion. A colleague of mine who had studied carefully the oratory and other propaganda of the last war made a speech about two years ago in which he predicted caustically the course of the propaganda leading up to and following the next declaration of war. He was still under the influence of Laswell's *Propaganda Technique in War Time,* Millis's *The Road to War,* and all the extensive literature of the subject. He now admits that he was almost completely wrong on all counts. Instead of falling for excited rhetoric we sink under the weight of words and turn for relief to action.

The really winged words I have heard lately have been from scientists occupied with things rather than phrases. The engineers and physicists, many of them, rejoice that it is their war, and they are so enamoured of the means that they ignore the ends. In the making of radio locators, in the search for new methods of detecting submarines, in converting peace-time industries into munitions plants, in teaching the use of Diesel engines instead of war aims, they exhibit high endeavor and vigorous morale.

This, of course, has happened before. In the seventeenth century, when modern science was beginning, there was a notable contrast between the cheerfulness and confidence of the experimentalists and the melancholy that was characteristic of the theologians, philosophers and literary men. The same contrast may be observed in the nineteenth century by thinking of Matthew Arnold and T. H. Huxley. Those who explored a small part of their environment and asked limited questions made progress and were happy. Those who scorned the details and asked for the grand plan ended in despair. We are again in this position, but the rhetorician is a dealer in grand plans.

In this war, then, many of the traditional sources of rhetoric in the grand style are out: boasting, heroism, the hills of home, a holy cause, joy in the destruction of the enemy, and, in a softened civilization, even the sweetness of dying for the fatherland. All these thus far seem to arouse in audiences the same attitudes that greet the stage speeches in praise of virtue. Many view the war as the result of a series of selfish, stupid, preventable mistakes, with justice and injustice so inextricably intertwined that they are suspicious of lofty pretensions. Even in disliking it all, we would not now use the words of Lincoln, "Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray that the mighty scourge of war will soon pass away." We do not hope fondly, nor pray fervently. We turn from words to things. Instead of teaching war aims

we teach mathematics and physics. And there is no proof that the boys do not fight just as well.

An analyist of rhetoric almost inevitably talks like a cynic. Rhetoric is expansive, inflationary; analysis and criticism are deflationary. But if to despise oratory is to despise human nature, it may still be possible to think more highly of Franklin Roosevelt because his best speeches were in his first and second campaigns, when he could still play with words, vilify the economic royalists with fine careless rapture, and paint a new America built by the New Dealers. It would sound a little hollow now, and he tempers his style to the occasion.

In pointing out that certain types of rhetoric will no longer move us, we are no more cynics than Aristotle when he gravely observed that, since most things in life are disappointing, old men will not readily be moved by idealistic speeches. When Emerson was accused of talking in glittering generalities he could say, "Yes, they do glitter; they have a right to glitter." Some of Woodrow Wilson's phrases had a right to glitter. But the lighting seems to have changed now, and we suspect glitter of not being gold.

The future rhetorical analyst, when he impatiently abandons such arm-chair generalizations as I have here hastily made, and comes to compare carefully the public utterances of Americans in this war with those in other conflicts, will, I believe, note something of the same changes which occurred in poetry when John Donne turned away from the Elizabethans. Too many people now know too much about too many things, and they insist upon juxtaposing technicalities and principles. Some even believe that the principles grow out of the technicalities, and this all leads to a fusion of feeling and knowledge that has not been characteristic of war rhetoric.

This is not to say that we are reaching a permanent and perfect balance in rhetorical style. There will be future romantic revolutions. Men will again proclaim that things should not be in the saddle; but things are riding us now, even when we speak of war and death.

WHAT SPEECH TEACHERS MAY DO TO HELP WIN THE WAR

ALFRED WESTFALL
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ON JANUARY 6, 1941, President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill gave the world the Atlantic Charter as a statement of our joint war aims. The principles of the Atlantic Charter were later summarized into the Four Freedoms. In his message transmitting these aims to the Congress, the President said:

> In the future days, which we seek to make secure, we look forward to a world founded upon four essential human freedoms:
>
> The first is freedom of speech and expression—everywhere in the world.

Freedom of speech is the basis of democracy and independence. It is the foundation of individual self-respect. Given freedom of speech, the other freedoms follow or can be achieved—freedom of worship, freedom from want, freedom from fear. It is easy to understand why leaders of the democracies listed freedom of speech first.

Freedom of speech may be denied and

restricted in many ways. It is not alone those who are forbidden the right to speak who have lost this freedom. The untrained man and the inexperienced also remain dumb. He that will not reason with his fellow men is a bigot, as Sir William Drummond suggested; he that cannot reason is a fool; and he that dare not reason is a slave. If freedom of speech is to be more than a meaningless symbol, there must be training and experience in the exercise of this freedom until men are familiar with its power and know how to use it effectively.

In order to preserve this freedom of speech among its citizens, the democratic way of life requires a wide and generous training in the art of self-expression. In a democracy—in a government of the people, by the people, for the people—no man may safely entrust his future and his freedom to another. But the rights of freedom carry with them a responsibility for their use. In every section of the country, in every class and level of society, in every grouping and regrouping of the people along political, professional, economic, social, or religious lines, there must be articulate citizens who can speak, and speak effectively, if the interests of the individual are to be represented and his rights maintained. The man who surrenders his freedom of speech, or allows it to deteriorate through disuse, may be enslaved as truly as the one whose rights are taken from him by force. By teaching the youth of America to exercise and perfect this freedom, the speech teacher is helping to win the war and to preserve this democratic way of life for which we have pledged our fortunes, our lives, and our sacred honor.

We can best show what speech teachers may do to help win the war by showing what they already have done. Fortunately we do not have to talk of untried theories barren of results. This is a total war calling for heroic efforts of every man, woman, and child in the nation. Because the speech teacher had directed his students in the study of vital questions of the hour, these students were already acquainted with the war and the issues involved. Their training in following national problems, in analyzing propositions, in collecting trustworthy information, had made them keenly aware of the dangers confronting us. Among the first to join the colors were the speech students. They closed their textbooks, deserted their laboratories, left the ivied halls of the college campus, to join the Army, the Navy, and the Marine Corps.

They helped to man our guns and fly our planes. Records in the daily newspapers, magazines, and college fraternity publications show that they were at Pearl Harbor that peaceful Sunday morning in December 1941. Their blood stained the steaming jungles of Bataan and the caves hewn in the rocks of Corregidor. They flew to Tokyo with Jimmy Doolittle. They helped to scatter the Japanese fleets in the Coral Sea, at Midway, and in the naval battles of Guadalcanal. They are fighting with the Marines in the Solomons and with the Army in North Africa. You will find them conspicuous among the officers and privates of every branch of our armed forces. You may have confidence that they will be in the van of the march toward Berlin when the second front is opened in Europe.

But what the speech teachers and speech students have done is a matter of record. The great task now confronting us is the responsibility in the days ahead in training students to serve on other fronts and in other ways, for the battle for freedom is waged at home as well as abroad. Some of the home-front activities are familiar and well-known. There is the

following six-point program, for example, that was worked out between the various groups of speech teachers and the United States Bureau of Education:

1. The organization and maintenance of speakers' bureaus.
2. The organization of public speaking classes in colleges and communities to prepare volunteer speakers.
3. The presentation of war aims and defense problems to local communities by means of debate squads and discussion groups.
4. Forum and panel discussions on the campus by the students for the students.
5. Providing patriotic and defense speakers for high schools.
6. Preparing volunteer speakers for bond campaigns, Red Cross and USO drives, Victory Gardens, and salvage programs.

In response to this call, hundreds of universities, colleges, and high schools, under the direction of speech teachers, have organized and conducted these forums and discussion groups. All of them ought to do so. Their activities begin on the campus or in the school, but extend to every group and to every corner of the community, social or business, secular or religious, urban or rural.

The goal in directing these activities is not merely that of selling war bonds or discussing war problems. It involves a deeper and more significant matter: that of building and maintaining civilian morale. Do not underestimate the importance of civilian morale. In warring nations it must be carefully watched and jealously guarded. It was the collapse of morale on the Home Front, quite as much as the defeat of the armies on the fighting front, that brought Germany to defeat in 1918. Today, as the United Nations watch hopefully for signs of breaking morale among the peoples of the Axis powers, they must not neglect to guard morale among their own people. "Public sentiment is everything," said Lincoln during another war time. "With public sentiment nothing can fail; without it nothing can succeed. Consequently he who moulds public sentiment goes deeper than he who enacts statutes or pronounces decisions. He makes statutes and decisions possible or impossible to be executed."

These are the obvious things that we teachers of speech can do. There are deeper, less tangible, but more important things that we can also do. We have the opportunity—or shall we say the responsibility?—of seeing that our students renew their faith in the ideals of democracy. If they are going to discuss the issues of the war, we must see that they study and understand them. If they are to undertake a patriotic service, we must see that they realize what patriotism stands for. If they are going to serve their country, we must see that they learn to value, appreciate, and love that country—not only for the protection it guarantees, but also for the rights it confers and the opportunities it provides.

Our responsibility goes even further. Too many young people have grown up with no faith, or too little faith, in the American form of government. Our task is to give them an understanding of democracy and an abiding faith in the democratic way of life. *We ought to take them back to a reading of some of the original documents and fundamental statements of the basis of our faith: the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, Webster's Reply to Hayne, Jackson's proclamation Against Nullification, and Henry Clay's speech on the Compromise of 1850.* These are the documents on which faith in this Union was built and has been nourished through the hard trials and long years. Even teachers of speech would not be harmed by a rereading of them during these days of crisis.

Too many of us have become careless about democracy. We no longer worship

freedom with the burning devotion given to a Goddess of Liberty. We rather think of her as a waitress in a restaurant, to be valued in terms of the food she provides. Often we are like the monkeys Kipling describes in his *Jungle Book*. They chattered in the tree tops about their rights and made brave resolutions; but the minute a cocoanut fell, they forgot rights and resolutions in a mad scramble for the fallen fruit. Kipling suggested it was because monkeys had no memories.

Our citizens no doubt have memories, but they have no interest in finding out what democracy means. They do not even read. According to library records, our adult population reads only about a book a year. A lawyer was recently asked to address a convention of bankers. In order to understand their problems better, he visited as many of them as he could and asked them what they were reading. One said he read *The Wall Street Journal*, but the copies were piled on a corner desk unopened. Another said that he belonged to the Book-of-the-Month Club, and proudly exhibited a pile of the last twelve books, still in the original packages and unopened. The lawyer's conclusion was that the bankers are terribly imprisoned in their own tiny circle, and that we cannot expect them to do much towards saving the country until we can get them to understand more of the American way of life. "If we are to make a better job of the peace this time than last," wrote former President Herbert Hoover and Hugh Gibson in their recent book, *The Problems of Lasting Peace*, "it will be because intelligent public interest and discussion succeed in developing more ideas and better ideas. And it will be because of better understanding of the causes of failure in the past and the experience that can be drawn from mankind's many efforts in the prevention of war."

At a time when we should be united, one group is fighting another. Capital and labor are still at each other's throats. People are indifferent. Visit one of the crowded smart cocktail lounges during this hour of national peril, and study the hard, selfish faces of men and women who are trying to find some means of squandering their time. Ask what democracy means to them. From the Atlantic to the Pacfic it is much the same. David Lawrence, editor of *The United States Weekly*, writes, that there are not a hundred thousand people in America genuinely interested in saving America.

Teachers of speech cannot remake the nation, but at least they can influence part of its youth, particularly that part being used to discuss war problems and to arouse civilian morale. We can train them conscientiously. To be a sincere speaker one must also be an earnest student. He must have knowledge, matured thought, and reasonable assurance for his faith. He must know and understand and believe, if he is to be convincing. He must light his torch at the original flame of liberty. These things we can help him do. Perhaps through our guidance some of our students may emerge from this war believing in democracy, instead of becoming victims to the common indifference toward public welfare. If teachers of speech can expose them to a contagious faith, perhaps we can rededicate at least a leavening part of the nation to liberty and democracy.

Finally, the speech teacher can help to win the war by the practical training of our youth in carrying on our form of government. We are committed to the two-party system, and we need party leaders. Tyranny is always marked by restrictions in freedom of speech. We have seen what happened to liberty in Italy and Germany under the one-party system. In a democracy where there are able leaders

to oppose any small group bent on selfish ends, we cannot fall victims of such a colossal blunder as wasting a whole nation in a futile, idiotic effort to turn back to the outmoded, renounced system of conquest and slavery. To have strong government, we must have strong opposition. In the last Presidential campaign, it was a former college debater who led the attack. Indeed teachers of speech should take pride in the fact that Congress is full of men trained in college speech classes and college forensic competition, that one has almost to search among leaders in Congress to find one who was not so trained.

Besides those in Congress are Paul V. McNutt of the Manpower Commission, Byron Price of the Office of Censorship, David E. Lilienthal of the Tennessee Valley Authority, and Elmer Davis of the Office of War Information. These are men—not an inventory but a prominent short list—who rose from the ranks through the aid of training first begun in college speech classes and upon university platforms. We should also note the speech teachers now or recently in public life: Josh Lee, Oklahoma senator retired to private life in the last election; Karl Mundt, representative from South Dakota; and Herbert B. Maw, Governor of Utah. These men have followed the tradition set by that earlier Harvard teacher of speech who became the sixth president of the United States, John Quincy Adams. The achievements of such professional compeers should spur us on. We should recognize the opportunity given us to train the students now in college to become leaders in the critical days ahead. We are going to need trained speakers as never before. "America within the next few years must make some very fearful and some very fateful decisions," according to Wendell Willkie. "And it is my earnest hope that in arriving at the conclusions with reference to such questions the finest type of American discussion may take place, so that democracy, functioning as it should function, will arrive at conclusions that will preserve the system for us."

These are the things that the speech teacher and, under his direction, the speech student can do to help win the war. We should dedicate ourselves to the task with the faith that grows from the certainty that, to paraphrase Walt Whitman, never at any time since our earth gathered itself into a mass has there grown up on any of the continents of the globe, nor upon any planet or satellite or star, nor upon the asteroids, nor in any part of ethereal space, nor in the midst of density, nor under the fluid wet of the sea, nor in that condition which precedes the birth of babes, nor during any of the changes of life, nor in that condition which follows what we term death, nor in any stretch of abeyance or action afterwards of vitality, nor in any process of formation or reformation anywhere, a being whose instinct did not love freedom and hate enslavement. This is why no conqueror has ever won a final victory, from Alexander to Napoleon, from Attila the Hun to Wilhelm II.

A WAR-TIME APPROACH TO PUBLIC SPEAKING

JAMES N. HOLM
Kent State University

DURING these days every speech publication and every meeting of teachers of speech will be primarily concerned with what the profession can do in the war. But to leaf through periodicals that have already appeared and to judge from the past, almost all of the material will be devoted to what can be done *outside of the classroom.*

It is time that we look within the recitation room, even though the number of students gathered there may be smaller now than in the past. It is time that we survey critically the work we do there day by day, and evaluate it in the light of current needs.

Are we still teaching public speaking in the way we did during the lush days of prosperity, or in the manner with which we met our classes during the educational rush of the depression era? Does the course in public speaking tend to be a glorified course in personal salesmanship, in "selling the idea," high-powered persuasive methods divorced from consideration of the ethics of persuasion? Are we still using the approach of the text which in discussing the importance of effective speaking asserts "The man who seeks honors in public life has a very difficult problem if he lacks the ability to speak effectively"? If the answers are affirmative, public speaking is yet offered on the basis that a glib tongue is still the key to bigger and better jobs. Such public speaking is out of step with the tenor of America in 1943.

Undoubtedly most teachers of public speaking are making sincere attempts to harmonize class work with what seems to be the demands of the times. That harmony may mean to some a more intensive course of study, a speed-up, or a higher standard of performance. To others it may mean a renovated series of speaking assignments designed to stimulate as closely as possible the speaking demands of war-time living. But I should like to suggest that behind these surface improvements should lie a re-integrated philosophy, a refreshed outlook. To a few this viewpoint may seem new, but in reality it is only as modern as the truths expressed by Aristotle and Cicero some twenty centuries ago.

Such a philosophy may be surveyed in four particulars.

1. The teacher must orient himself to the fact that the ability to speak well is but *one* of the attributes of effective leadership.
2. The teacher, in adjusting his teaching to this fact, must aim for a goal greater than a mere speaking technique.
3. The teacher and student alike must realize that freedom of speech involves not only an obligation to speak but a duty to listen.
4. The teacher must realize that each of the three major forms of public address is indispensable in our society, and therefore must lay equal emphasis upon all three.

In the first place, the teacher must orient himself and his work to the fact that the ability to speak well is but *one* of the important qualities of leadership. Integrity, sincerity, breadth of vision, determination, and many other character traits are more important to real leadership than is the ability to use the indicated techniques of swaying the multitude. Public speaking is not a desirable end in itself, but is only to be cultivated where already dwell the seeds of leadership.

In the past, many of our company have

taken pride in pointing to those in positions of responsibility and asserting "He used to debate for me," or "I taught him how to speak," with the definite indication that such training was largely responsible for success. Today it seems important to perceive speaking ability in its proper proportion and perspective—understanding that a speaker is a "Good man speaking the truth." Only when we have mastered the orientation of our subject to the entire sweep of the character and the career of those in our classroom, can we feel that we have laid the foundation for successful teaching.

In the second place, following such a successful orientation, the teacher of speech must plan his teaching so it will demand of the student that he grow in mental and moral stature as well as in mastery of the audience. Teaching must ask a real approach to vital problems, insisting that students comport themselves as men and women rather than as immature adolescents. If those in our classrooms are ready to take their places on the firing lines and in the shops, is it too much to ask that their speaking should reflect some consideration of their attitudes toward the world which now belongs in part to them? Trivial speech subjects, frequently tolerated by the instructor, should be definitely discouraged —topics such as "Saturday in our dormitory," "Tipping should be abolished," and "My high school teachers." Further, there should be a reawakened emphasis upon that which Aristotle chose to call *ethical proof*. A brief survey of eight popular current texts in public speaking discloses a total of thirteen pages devoted to emphasizing the necessity of sincerity, earnestness, and similar attributes of strong ethical force—out of a total of more than 2900 pages!

It is evident from such a survey, no matter how cursory, that the responsibility for emphasis upon the qualities of the speaker rests with the instructor and upon his planning and handling of the instruction. Clearly the teacher himself must see his subject in its true relationship to the total development of that student who is capable of leadership, and must insist that mastery of the techniques of public address be secondary to mastery of self and of subject.

The third particular in this approach to public speaking has to do with the traditional freedom that surrounds the voicing of an opinion. Too many of us, teachers and laymen alike, are habitually given to proclaiming loudly our right to be heard. But the teacher too seldom remembers that each privilege under our democratic system entails a reciprocal responsibility, and that the privilege of free speech is no exception. How often today does the teacher of public speaking stress these dual responsibilities: *to speak and to listen?* True freedom of speech will atrophy if not employed, and may easily be resigned. If the essence of democracy is found in the old town meetings where each citizen assembles to raise his voice in the governing of his affairs, then it is important that freedom of speech be kept, not as an empty privilege, but as an active responsibility entrusted to every individual. Each citizen must shoulder this obligation to speak, or our democracy rests upon irresponsibility.

But speaking to the empty air is useless. Even in the lands of our enemies it is still possible for a man to exercise freedom of speech in the center of a field. If the right and the duty to speak are to hold significance, then the speaker must have auditors. In turn it must then be the responsibility of each citizen to listen carefully and critically to that which his fellows say. Only if every individual takes it upon himself to listen to others, as well as to express his own opinions, will the right to freedom of speech have significance. These obligations should be taught

in the public speaking class, for it is there where the freedom to speak *should best be nourished.*

Finally, in rounding out his approach to public speaking, the teacher must realize and emphasize the necessity of *all three* of the major forms of address. No one must allow enthusiasm for oratory, for discussion, or for debate to lead him to the point of view that one is the most valuable of the forms, and therefore the cure-all for democratic ills. On the contrary, each of the three—advocacy, discussion, and debate—holds an important place in our social, political, and economic fabric.

To any democratic system there must be provided a voice for the minority, a voice for the reformer. These are the voices of the advocate, demanding justice, improvement, and reform. For the courts, for the pulpit, for the soapbox we must train speakers in ethical persuasion. The advocate has a very real place in our nation.

If advocacy is necessary that a cause be heard, discussion is equally necessary that problems be solved and that information be made freely available. To the conference room, the council of war, the conciliation table, and the open forum go the techniques of problem solving as they are applied to the methods of discussion. To aid in the solution of group problems and to promote a more informed public we must teach the principles and methods of discussion.

Debating, to many of our profession, is a form of public address which is long past its majority in social significance and usefulness. Critical examination of such an opinion must reveal its fallaciousness. In the first place, our entire scheme of doing business rests in the last analysis upon a system of parliamentary law, whose nucleus in turn is the simple motion. People must be for or against the motion, and in their disagreement we have, inherently, debate. If we are to relegate debate to the realm of the museum piece we must surely send with it parliamentary law and the main motion.

In the second place, and of equal importance in disclosing the necessity of full debate, is the fact that only in the *confrontation of opinion* are found all the elements necessary to a full and significant freedom of speech. In the confrontation of opinion which characterizes debate are the speaker, the critic (equally articulate) and the audience. Only in debate *must* the listener attend to the critic of his opinions, a situation fundamental to a healthy democracy.

So if we are to have full criticism before a biased audience, if we are to maintain the will of the majority as expressed by vote for or against a resolution, then we must maintain debate as one of the three equally vital modes of public address. The teacher of public speaking will do well to teach all three with equal emphasis.

These four items in a basic philosophy for the teaching of public speaking in our time may not seem as dramatic as other suggestions for the relating of speech training to the problems of the day. They are not specific directions for training officers to handle men nor for instructing potential industrial foremen in giving directions to their workers. This philosophy is no exhortation to enlist classes in the selling of war bonds or the explanation of civilian defense measures. Nor does it relate how this school or that has boosted morale or dispersed rumors which might aid the enemy. All of these are very necessary parts of our war effort, and should be a part of the total work of the public speaking teacher, but they are not enough.

Unless we can help instill the characteristics of effective leadership in men and women who now possess the potentialities of statesmanship, unless we can

build an intelligent, sincere, and alert electorate as well as an articulate one, unless we can produce speakers who are good men speaking the truth and auditors who will listen with an open-minded but objectively critical attitude—unless we can do these things, then indeed we shall have failed to produce the warp and woof of democracy, without which all the rest is but outward accessory.

TEACHING PUBLIC DISCUSSION DURING THE WAR*

EVELYN KONIGSBERG, *Richmond Hill High School, New York City*
ELIZABETH A. DOURIS, *New Utrecht High School, New York City*
CHARLES F. EDGECOMB, *Boys High School, New York City*
PHYLLIS M. HOFMANN, *James Madison High School, New York City*
MURIEL G. LEAHY, *Grover Cleveland High School, New York City.*

PUBLIC discussion is the cornerstone of democracy. It is largely through the meeting of minds, the pooling of information, and the interchange of ideas which come from free public discussion that people learn to live together in the democratic way of life. Especially in time of war, when people are assailed by doubts, tormented by ignorance, and undecided as to what exactly is the place of civilians in national defense, are the public schools charged with the responsibility of providing a means whereby people may learn how to discuss mutual problems; to become informed on economic, political, and ideological factors that are shaping their daily lives; to arrive at intelligent public opinion; and to decide on public policy and action.

Teachers of speech have a special responsibility in this matter, that of training the youth of America, through courses in discussion, to become familiar with the forms and methods of group thinking, and of engaging them in group consideration of topics now of vital importance to national defense, and on problems with which the American people will probably be concerned for some time to come.

Teachers, educators, and civic leaders who are familiar with the varied forms and techniques of public discussion are generally agreed upon the following principles:

1. That properly conducted group discussion of vital questions is a democratic procedure and, as such, offers excellent opportunity for students to learn "the democratic way" by participation in a democratic process of group thinking.

2. That group discussion usually is a more dynamic means of disseminating information to the untrained mind than is a lecture by an expert.

3. That group discussion provides a means for education in thoughtful listening.

4. That group discussion provides a means for educating people to formulate opinion with due respect for established fact.

5. That group discussion, properly conducted, should serve to train students in respect and tolerance for the opinion of others.

6. That group discussion offers a desirable, peaceful means of arriving at conclusions.

7. That group discussion is frequently stimulating to the thoughtful but shy or reticent speaker who will be willing to make a

* Prepared by the New York City Public School Speech Committee and adopted by the Secondary School Committee of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH as the fourth of its series of articles on Procedures for the Teaching of Speech in Secondary Schools. For further information on this series, see the JOURNAL, October, 1942, pages 356 and 360.

The New York City High School Division has accepted this article as a basis for recommending the organization of discussion groups or classes in all New York City high schools. In that connection, an enlarged version has been prepared that includes a Foreword and the teaching units on *Group Discussions, Round Table,* and *Panel Discussion.* This has now been mimeographed and is available to anyone who sends fifty cents (money order or currency) to Miss Evelyn Konigsberg, Richmond Hill High School, 114th Street and 89th Avenue, Richmond Hill, New York.

brief contribution, but who might hesitate to serve as a formal speaker.

8. That newspaper reports and radio programs give evidence that group discussion of vital questions is becoming a more frequently used technique in the United States.

It seems reasonable, therefore—particularly at a time when all the people need to be as widely informed as possible—to suggest that no student should leave the secondary school without having an opportunity to develop his own power of thoughtful listening and of speaking through intelligent, guided participation in the various forms of public discussion.

Such a course, in this time of crisis, should not only include a knowledge of techniques and a participation in the various forms of discussion, but also should place special emphasis on the consideration of problems that confront the American people today.

The forms of discussion now in common use are: 1) *group discussion*, of the face-to-face type, which may be divided into the *conference group*, the *round table*, and the *panel;* 2) the *forum;* 3) the *symposium;* 4) the *debate*. These types differ somewhat in purpose and procedure. The first three have as their purposes: 1) the supplying of information; 2) the solving of problems through cooperative reflective thinking; and thus 3) the determination of policies for group or individual action. The fourth (debate) differs somewhat in purposes. They are: 1) the supplying of information, which is limited somewhat by 2) the competitive argument of opposing sides of a question for a decision, which may 3) determine policies of a group or individual. We shall define the types as clearly as possible.

1. *Group discussion* involves the participation of any group of people in a face-to-face situation that is concerned with a problem on which it is seeking information—are desirous of clarifying their thinking. As a rule, such a group is seeking solutions that will enable it to determine certain policies of action regarding the problem considered. This is definitely a *cooperative* type of discussion, of which there are three common types:

   a. The *small conference group*, much like a committee, is a common type of this kind of discussion. As a rule the members are interested in securing information and in arriving at certain conclusions that will enable them to take certain action. Ordinarily this is not a public discussion. The members are relatively well informed in most cases, but may not always be. Participation is spontaneous and is guided by a leader, who gives pattern to the discussion.

   b. The *panel discussion* is a small group discussion that is held before an audience. The panel usually consists of from six to eight persons, retains the same spontaneity of the small group procedure, and is under the direction of a leader. Some panels make use of persons who are well informed on the problem being considered, this because of the obligation of informing the audience. The true panel, however, is not a series of prepared participations on various phases of a subject.

   c. The *round table* does not differ essentially in organization from the panel. It may be said to be a kind of panel. In practice it has come to consist, in many cases, of three or four experts on a problem who discuss it either before an audience or over the radio in a spontaneous, alive manner under the guidance of a leader who presides.

2. The *forum* is simply discussion from the floor by members of the audience under the guidance of a chairman who recognizes those who wish to speak. It may be used following a single speaker or lecturer, after a panel or round table discussion, or subsequent to a symposium, or a debate.

3. The *symposium* consists of a series of prepared public speeches on the various phases of a subject or problem under consideration. Each speaker presents his

views on the question being discussed, or may speak on merely one phase of the problem. A forum or question period usually follows. In practice, *some* panel discussions are really symposiums.

4. The *debate* is a formal argument between two teams on opposite sides of a question under consideration for the purpose of winning a decision. The decision may be in terms of a single judge's verdict, the expressed opinion of a board of judges, or the vote of an audience for or against one side. This is definitely a competitive type of discussion.

The following topics for discussion are those which rise naturally out of the events of the day. All are suitable for use in any type of public discussion. The lists of sources should prove especially valuable in gathering material that is authoritative and up-to-date.

The Civilian and the War

Suggested Topics

American Ideals
Choosing a Career in Wartime
Civilians Also Fight: Industry's Job in the War
Civilian Defense Activities in Our Community
College, the Armed Forces, or a Job?
Defense of Democracy
Education and National Defense
*Food and National Defense
Health and National Defense
Inflation: Causes, Meaning, Means of Prevention
*Nutrition and Defense
*Nutrition and the Nation's Welfare
Our American Heritage
Propaganda Analysis
Public Safety in Wartime
School Activities for National Defense
Taxes in Wartime
*The Consumer in Wartime
Women in Wartime

Sources of Information

American Association of Adult Education, 60 East 42rd Street, New York City. "Defense Digests."

American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, Washington, D.C. Send for "The Radio Calendar."

Educational Department of:
National Broadcasting Company, RCA Bldg., 30 Rockefeller Center, New York City.
Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Avenue, New York City.
Mutual Broadcasting System, 1440 Broadway, New York City.
Send for educational bulletins and list of publications.

Educational Policies Committees, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C. Send for work kit, "Teaching Materials on the Defense of Democracy"; a complete list of publications and services is available.

Educational Radio Script and Transcription Exchange, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. Ask for catalogue.

Educational Relations Branch, Consumer Division, Office of Price Administration, Washington, D.C.

Federal Radio Education Committee, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. Send for list of publications.

Information Exchange on Education and the National Defense, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. Send for list of publications and services.

Institute of Oral and Visual Education, Munsey Bldg., Washington, D.C.

National Association of Broadcasters, Washington, D.C. "How to Use Radio in the Classroom."

National Association of Manufacturers, 14 West 49th Street, New York City. Send for "Bibliography of Economic and Social Study Material."

National Broadcasting Company, Box 30, Station J. New York City. Send for bulletins: "On Your Job"; reprints: "Unlimited Horizons"; booklets: "These Four Men," "Mansions of Imagination."

National Education Association, Washington, D.C. Send for complete list of "Personal Growth Leaflets."

Reader's Reference and Research Bureau, Freeport, New York. "National Defense Source Book." Ask for list of publications.

Radio Office, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. Send for reprints, "University of Chicago Round Table."

U. S. Office of Civilian Defense, Washington, D.C. Ask for list of publications.

* Titles so marked are issued as work kits by the *Information Exchange on Education and the National Defense*, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

Youth Activities Division, Department of Group Activities, Greater New York Civilian Defense Volunteer Office, 1 Pershing Square, New York City. Send for "Bulletin" and list of publications.

Pamphlets

Bidwell, P. W., *If War Comes,* Public Affairs Pamphlet, No. 48, Silver, Burdett & Company, New York City, 1940.

Bowerman, C. E., *The War and American Jobs,* Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois.

The Attack on Democracy, Institute for Propaganda Analysis, 2960 Broadway, New York City.

Moulton, H. G., *Fundamental Economic Issues in National Defense,* Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C.

Stewart, M. S., *How Shall We Pay for Defense?* Public Affairs Pamphlet, No. 52, Silver, Burdett & Company, New York City.

Freedom or Fascism? Yale University Press, New Haven, Conn. Includes a valuable reading list.

Library Card Catalogue

High Points, Issues of 1941 and 1942, especially April 1942, pp. 70-72, and May 1942, pp. 52-55.

Readers Guide to Periodical Literature.

Vertical File Index, H. W. Wilson Company, New York. Available in libraries.

Vital Speeches, 33 West 42nd Street, New York City. Files for 1940, 1941, 1942.

Latin America

Suggested Topics

Argentina Today
Axis Infiltration in Latin America
Brazil under Portuguese Rule
Chile Today
Communication Facilities between North and South America
Central American Countries and Their Problems
Hemispheric Solidarity: Meaning and Implications
Inter-American Friendship and Understanding
Juarez and the Development of an Independent Mexico
Latin American Cultures
Latin American Products in Use in the United States
Latin America: A Source of Raw Materials
Medina and Present Day Venezuela
Mexico Today
Mexico under Spanish Rule
Modern Life in South America
Natural Resources, Exports and Imports of Central and South America
Peru Today
Puerto Rico, History and Problems
Racial Backgrounds in South America
Simon Bolivar and His Contribution toward South American Independence
South America's Part in World War I
South America's Part in World War II
The "Good Neighbor" Policy
The Lima, Havana, and Rio de Janeiro Conferences: Their Purposes and Achievements
Trade Relations between the United States and South America, Past and Present
Vargas and Brazil Today
Youth in South America Today

Sources of Information

Colombian-American Cultural Institute, Hotel Wellington, Seventh Avenue and 55th Street, New York City.

Colombian Information Bureau, 21 West Street, New York City.

Committee on Cooperation in Latin America, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Committee on Cultural Relations in Latin America, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Committee on Inter-American Relations, NEA, 800 East Gun Hill Road, New York City. Address Mr. J. Hochstein, Chairman.

National Foreign Trade Council, Education Committee, 26 Beaver Street, New York City.

Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, Commerce Bldg., Washington, D.C.

Pan-American Books and Information, Inc., 50 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.

Pan-American Union, Washington, D.C.

Progressive Education Association, 221 West 57th Street, New York City.

Pan-American Good Neighbor Forum, 19 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois.

Research Division, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C. Send for "Latin American Backgrounds."

The Good Neighbor Center, 310 Riverside Drive, New York City.

Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York City.

Information Exchange on Education and the National Defense, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. Send for work kit.

"Inter-American Friendship and Understanding."
High Points, Issues of 1939-1942 inclusive
Library Card Catalogue.
NBC, CBS Educational Bulletins
Readers Guide to Periodical Literature.
Vertical File Index.

Problems of the Far East

Suggested Topics

Pacific-American Questions
Air Transportation in the Pacific Area
Alaska and Problems of the Pacific
American Bases in the Pacific
Barter System in American Trade with the Pacific Islands
Japan and the Pacific
Problems Arising from Different Standards of Living, Education, and from Differences of Racial Temperament among Pacific Peoples
The United Nations' Supply Line in the Pacific
United States' Need for a Three-Ocean Navy

China

American Aviation and China
China and International Finance
China and Russia
China's Contributions to Western Life and Culture
Chiang Kai-Shek, China's War Leader
Chinese Architecture
Chinese Foods
Education in China
Family Life in China
Medicine in China
Natural Resources of China
Nutrition in China
Public Health in China
Rise of the Chinese Republic
The Soong Sisters and Their Influence
United States Contributions to Chinese Welfare
United States Education and Chinese Leadership
United States Stake in China
United States Trade with China
Youth Movement in China

The Dutch East Indies

Balinese Government and the Netherlands
Balinese Native Customs
Communal Life in the Dutch East Indies
Economic Conditions in the East Indies
Javanese Resources and The Netherlands
Natural Resources of the East Indies
The East Indies and the World's Oil Supply
Religion in the East Indies

Hawaii

American Contributions to Hawaiian Welfare
Amusements in Hawaii
Aviation Facilities in Hawaii
Early History of Hawaii
Education in Hawaii
Hawaii, America's Pacific Outpost
Hawaii, A Source of Raw Materials
Hawaiian Leaders in the World of Sport
Hawaiian Music
Queen Liliuokalani and the Hawaiians
Hawaii's Place in World War II
"Remember Pearl Harbor"

The Philippines

Air Transportation and the Philippines
Early History of the Philippines
Exports and Imports of the Philippines
Natural Resources of the Philippines
Philippine Independence
Philippine Leaders and American Education
Racial Strains in the Philippines
The Philippines in World War II
The Philippines under American Government
United States Contributions to Education in the Philippines

Australia

Australian-American Trade Relations
Australia's Place in World War II
Australia and the United Nations' Supply Line
Australia and Air Power
Australian Government
Australian Literature
Contributions of Australia to the Theatre
Education in Australia
Emigration to Australia

India

All India Congress
British Control vs. Indian Independence
Caste System in India
Freedom for India—Will It Work?
India's Place in World War II
Indian Contributions to World Literature
Indian Philosophies
Indian Religions
India's Contribution to the Art of Living
India's Labor Problems
Internationally Known Figures of India
Kipling and India

Mahatma Gandhi and Civil Disobedience
Natural Resources of India
Nutrition in India
Public Health in India
United States Trade with India

Sources of Information

British Empire Chamber of Commerce, 567 Fifth Avenue, New York City.
British Library of Information, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.
China Institute, 119 East 57th Street, New York City.
Committee on Materials for Teachers in International Relations, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. Send for "Resource Packet on the United States and the Far East," $1.50. (Almost essential for every teacher)
East and West Association, 403 East 49th Street, New York City.
Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York City.
Information Exchange on Education and the National Defense, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
Institute of Pacific Relations, 127 East 52nd Street, New York City.
Service Bureau for Intercultural Education, 221 West 57th Street, New York City.
United China Relief, 1790 Broadway, New York City. Send for "Aids to the Study of China in Schools."
Educational Bulletins of NBC and CBS.
Library Card Catalogue.
Readers Guide to Periodical Literature.
Vertical File Index.

Russia and Current Problems

Suggested Topics

Allied War Aid for Russia
American Influences in Soviet Life
American-Soviet Diplomatic Relations
Language Differences in Russia
Natural Resources of Russia
Russia and the Axis
Russia and Asiatic Affairs
Russian Art
Russian Drama and Its Influence on the American Theatre
Russian Motion Pictures
Russia's Part in Postwar Problems
Scientific Contributions of Russians
Soviet Foreign Policy
The Government of Russia
The Russian Army
United States-Russian Trade Relations
Youth in Modern Russia

Sources of Information

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 West 117th Street, New York City.
Committee on Materials for Teachers in International Relations, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.
Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York City.
Information Exchange on Education and the National Defense, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
Institute of Pacific Relations, 129 East 52nd Street, New York City.
Service Bureau for Intercultural Education, 221 West 57th Street, New York City.
Library Card Catalogue.
Readers Guide to Periodical Literature.
Vertical File Index.

Intercultural Relations

Suggested Topics

Celtic Groups in America
Contributions to American Life from Special Racial Groups
Education and Human Relationships
Foreign Language Groups in America: Causes of Immigration; Problems of Adjustment; Contributions to American Life (French, German, Italian, Mexican, Oriental, Portuguese, Scandinavian, Spanish, Slavic).
Minority Groups in America: The American Indian; the Jew; the Negro; the Oriental.
Religion in American Life.

Sources of Information

Information Exchange on Education and the National Defense, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
Local Museums
National Conference of Christians and Jews, 300 Fourth Avenue, New York City
National Educational Association, Washington, D.C. Send for list of "Personal Growth Leaflets."
New York Public Library, Supplement to Bulletin 17, No. 9. "The Negro, A Bibliography."
Service Bureau for Intercultural Education, 221 West 57th Street, New York City.
Library File, Card Catalogue.
Readers Guide to Periodical Literature.
Vertical File Index.

SOUTHWESTERN COLLEGE LIBRARY

LIVING WORDS

ROBERT T. OLIVER
Bucknell University

A SPEECH is more than the printed text. It is a living union of the speaker, the audience, and the occasion. This is a truism worth frequent reconsideration.

Patrick Henry's ringing "Give me liberty" comes down to us simply as biographer Wirt recalled it. Bolingbroke's oratory was considered the greatest of all times, but no trace of it remains. Burke's magnificent speeches come to us carefully edited and polished for the press, but not with the extemporaneous spontaneity of their delivery. The oratorical reputations of Peter the Hermit, of Savonarola, of Lord Chatham, and of many another speaker of sanctified memory must be taken largely on trust. Shorthand is a comparatively recent invention and only during the last hundred years or so have there been decently authentic texts of speeches as they actually have been delivered.

This may be just as well, for when authentic copies of the speeches are available, the reader is often puzzled to explain why the auditor was moved. A speech that stirs an audience to frenzied response in the evening meeting will leave its readers critically cold when it appears in the morning paper. "Did the speech read well?" asked Charles James Fox. "Then it was a poor speech."

Critical readers too long have been contemptuous of the living words of speech. "Demagogic," "shallow," "mob-baiting," "rationalistic," "puerile," "inflammatory," "emotional"—adjectives frequently applied to public speeches—are used not for definition, but for defamation. It is perhaps easier to deny the respectability of public address than it is to understand it. But denial does not diminish its force. It only leaves the critic deliberately unaware of its essential nature, and less equipped to deal with it.

In spite of the critic's disdain, the radio *did* "elect the next President." A campaign of speaking based on the refrain of "Pass the biscuits, Pappy," in Texas, and "Fried eggs every Thursday" in California *did* successfully win the voters. An orator who made pouting a masculine virtue *did* set the pattern for totalitarianism in Europe, and another whose emotional screaming is anathema to cultivated ears *did* turn Europe, and the world, into a seething cauldron of destruction and hate. The influence of living words may be deprecated, but cannot be denied. Let the critics accept this fact, and their disdain may be transmuted into a critical search for means of stemming its worst effects.

Public speech is at once the newest and the oldest of the popular arts. Its newness lies in the development of sound moving pictures, of incipient television, and of radio—which alone brings into over fifty million American homes the accents of the living voice carrying news, politics, poetry, science, drama, and sports, and shaping the habits of thought of the generations of today and tomorrow. With the assistance of the motion picture and the probable future assistance of television, the radio will lead in the standardization of our habits of thought, action, and speech to an extent that we are barely beginning to realize.

But speech has not suddenly been made an influential agency through scientific inventions. From the earliest days of man, it has been among the prime movers of human action.

The leaders in primitive society were

the speakers, the medicine men and chieftains, whose skill in verbalization awed their followers into acquiescence. Recorded history is thought by some to be a story of domination by force, of conquest and aggression, but even the dominion of force must yield first place to the power of speech as the basic influence in human affairs.

Modern historians, intent upon the economic interpretation of history, have emphasized such influences as "land hunger," and "potato famines," but we should not overlook the fact that these forces never influence masses *in any uniform way* until they have been effectively verbalized. The orator on his stump is an essential link between the fact and its effect. In specific illustration, "Manifest Destiny" was an oratorical by-word *before* it became a social force. So was the Forgotten Man and the New Deal. So was the doctrine of *Lebensraum*. No revolution arises spontaneously. All are talked into being.

Political and social revolutions always have arisen from the existing state of affairs, through the process of verbalization, to some specific result. The important fact is that shaping the kind of result has always been the product of speech. The "phrasing" precedes the "leading." Whether we like it or not, the course of history has been motivated more by men of words than by men of muted action or of solitary thought.

Our own history sufficiently illustrates this fact, as a few random instances will demonstrate.

It was probably because of fear that eloquent supporters of the President (such as Alexander Hamilton) might unduly influence Congress that a provision was written into our Constitution which prohibited cabinet members from participating in Congressional debates. Certainly it was largely because of Hamilton's persuasive influence that a majority vote for the adoption of the Constitution was finally won in the hotly contested and crucial state convention of New York, where Governor Clinton's political machine, opposing adoption, consisted originally of forty-six delegates, as against the nineteen who first supported Hamilton.

It is highly questionable whether there would even have been an American Revolution in the first place had it not been for the power of speech in molding and unifying public sentiment. Alice Baldwin, in her *New England Clergy and the American Revolution,* has submitted an intensive body of specific evidence that shows the power of the New England pulpit in arousing a spirit of political antagonism to England during the Colonial period. Samuel Adams, James Otis, and John Hancock—master agitators—magnified such a relatively insignificant occurrence as the Boston Riot into a Massacre, and refused to let the populace forget it. Patrick Henry and others in Virginia used speech to arouse the comparatively secure Southern colonies.

First, by speech the colonists were incited to rebel. Second, in large part through the use of public speaking they were persuaded to unite for the duration of the war. Third, by speech as a tool for cooperative thinking, their delegates, assembled in the Constitutional Convention, were able to work out the compromise document which they offered to the states as a Federal Constitution. Fourth, in a series of state conventions the Constitution was adopted chiefly through the influence of as effective a group of persuasive speakers as could anywhere be assembled.

But the notion established was one in name only. It did not exist in fact as we know it. Who should interpret the laws of Congress and decide whether they were constitutional? The power was unsettled until it was fixed in the Su-

preme Court through the influence of John Marshall. Did the Senate really have the sole legislative power to ratify treaties? The House of Representatives did not think so, and was on the point of asserting its own right to participate in treaty-making, until it was dissuaded by the powerful plea of Fisher Ames, speaking on the Jay treaty with England, in 1796. Was the Union an entity or was it composed simply of a group of sovereign, self-governing states? The issue hung in abeyance while the great orators, North and South, argued the issue before two generations of voters. Though historians center their attention upon the Civil War, where the issue was finally decided by force of arms, it is evident to many that Webster's Seventh of March speech and other compromise oratory were influential enough to postpone the conflict until the North had gathered sufficient strength to win the war.

Apart from politics, speech-making exercised a tremendous influence in shaping the cultural patterns of America. The Great Awakening of the 1739's and The Great Revival of the 1830's were two stirring religious movements, affecting the manner of life and thought of hundreds of thousands of Americans. These were caused and shaped by public speech. The early lyceum and later Chautauqua movements carried popular education to the masses long before the schools were organized to do so. Wave after wave of reform movements arose and swept over the American scene, changing it as they went, borne on the wings of speech. Temperance, Abolitionism, and woman's suffrage are three notable examples. Few outstanding orators were produced by these movements, but all of them owed their origin and their influence to the hosts of able speakers who could not be driven from the platform, and would not surrender until their causes triumphed. Wendell Phillips on slavery, Robert Ingersoll on religion, Henry George on the single tax, Bryan on currency reform, Theodore Roosevelt on the trusts, Wilson on international justice—these were the leaders, but behind them were thousands of now forgotten speakers.

One more example: That Theodore Roosevelt greatly affected the course of modern history none will deny. Some may agree with the Twainism found in Bernard De Voto's *Mark Twain in Eruption*, that T. R.'s election is the worst disaster to occur to the United States since the Civil War. Others may admire the author of the magic verbalisms: "The Square Deal," and "Walk softly and carry a big stick." Few will deny that the political success of this Knight of the Flashing Teeth was due largely to his ability to dramatize whatever he undertook. Henry F. Pringle recalls in his *Theodore Roosevelt: A Biography* that T. R. owed his election as Governor of New York, his selection as Vice-President, and his subsequent inheritance of the Presidency largely to his reputation as "the hero of San Juan Hill."

Yet it was largely through T. R.'s eloquence that his cavalry charge in a relatively insignificant battle was magnified into heroic proportions. Even the naming of the hill owed something to his oratorical imagination, for the charge never occurred on San Juan Hill, but on its neighbor, *Kettle Hill*. Had this master of the living word not sensed the contrast in dramatic power between Kettle and San Juan, American and world politics might well have taken vastly different paths. But here, as in innumerable other instances, the wave of the future was fundamentally determined by the power of speech.

The argument of this paper is simply that living words are among the leading formative influences in history. Historians now speak of economic, geographical,

ethnological, meteorological, and cultural forces that operate to shape the destiny of peoples. To them should be added the influence of speechmaking. "He who can phrase it can lead it," said Robespierre. As a matter of history, the phrasers frequently have been the leaders. Man speaking is man directing. The course of history again and again has been altered by living words.

ARGUMENTATION AND PERSONAL SUCCESS

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IT IS not altogether an accident that there are so few graduate schools of speech in the country. The simple truth is that speech has been—and still is—suspect in many universities. By reputation, at least, speech teachers are thought to be engaged in training go-getters, super-salesmen, and rabble-rousers. This fact was impressed upon me a short time ago when I asked the dean of the graduate school to give me his honest opinion of a recent and widely used text on argumentation. He is a scholar of sound judgment and wide reputation. He recognizes fully the value of speech training. When he had examined the book he said that he would be inclined to guard himself against a person who had received the sort of training in argumentation outlined in that book. Is there any basis in fact for the implications involved in the dean's reaction?

In my judgment there is more truth in the charge than most of us can admit without discomfort. If, as recent investigation has shown,[1] the aim of education has been to teach the individual how to get ahead of his fellows in the struggle for material gain, argumentation[2] has been in the vanguard of such education, both in its avowed objectives and in the special incentives it has offered the prospective student. Personal success[3] has been the incentive and the reward for the study of argumentation. An examination of some of the representative textbooks will make this abundantly clear.

Argumentation has been generally defined as the art of influencing belief and conduct. The following are a few typical definitions: "Argumentation is the art of influencing thought and conduct by an appeal addressed primarily[4] to the understanding."[5] Another textbook defines it as "the art of influencing others, through the medium of reasoned discourse, to *believe* or *act* as one wishes them to believe or act." As the basis for a definition substantially like the ones given above, another textbook has this to say:

> One of your chief concerns is to influence men and women to accept your point of view about many things. Because your relations to society is one of continual mutual adjustment, because you cannot easily escape from the world, and because you have numerous desires and needs that must be fulfilled if you are to get on or even to survive, you find yourself continually attempting to impress others with your personality and to reconstruct their motives and, in the end, their

[1] See *Report of the Commission on Social Studies* under the direction of Professor H. C. Krey. The report, in several volumes, is reviewed by Harold Laski, *New Republic*, July 20, 1936. See also *Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science*, November, 1935.

[2] It is needless to say that what I have to say here and in the following pages applies as well to the whole field of practical public speaking.

[3] The word *success* here is used in the sense in which the ordinary man of affairs uses it.

[4] Despite the phrase "addressed primarily to the understanding" this textbook places considerable emphasis upon nonrational appeals.

[5] Since I am interested in criticizing a tradition rather than any one exponent of it, the source of this and subsequent quotations from textbooks will not be given.

conduct. . . . Through it all you are striving, vigorously or lightly, to have your personality prevail.

Textbooks are in further agreement in emphasizing personal success as an incentive for the study of argumentation. The following are typical statements on this matter: "There is practical value for the student in studying in the classroom the theory of argumentation and then in putting those theories into practical use through the pedagogical device of debating. Skill in debate makes more concise and vigorous ministers, more effective after dinner speakers, more compelling salesmen." Another textbook is somewhat more emphatic:

> Professional people such as lawyers, clergymen, salesmen, and most executives in business and commercial enterprise of all kinds, find proficiency in this art especially helpful. But one does not have to be interested in business, law or any other particular profession in order to realize its benefits. As a means of influencing the thinking and acting of the people with whom we associate, it can contribute immeasurably to the happiness and well being of anyone who is proficient in its use. It is this factor which we would emphasize.

The following from another textbook is to the same effect:

> Again, after graduation, whether you are to practice law, medicine, teaching, preaching, salesmanship, or to attempt any other work, your practical problem will be to influence human behavior. . . . Is your career to be business? Then you must apply to a sales situation pleasant address, knowledge of your wares, and, *chiefly, ability to shake your customer out of his lethargy or polite assent and so to close the sale.*[6]

Other incentives are of course mentioned. Something is always said about argumentation as an aid in solving intellectual problems, in exercising good citizenship, in promoting the ends of education, etc. But such generalities are thrown in altogether uncritically; and after lip service is paid to them in the introductory pages, they are usually forgotten. The main emphasis throughout, implicitly or explicitly, is upon influencing the belief and conduct of others as a means of achieving personal success. A brief review of the technique of motivation in argument will suffice to establish this point.

Since Aristotle wrote his *Rhetoric*, it has been generally recognized that effective argument is a blend of two elements: the logical and the persuasive. The successful argument, it has been thought, appeals both to reason and to emotion. Not all contemporary writers on the subject accept this duality.[7] But while they may not agree on a matter which is largely a question of terminology, they all agree that in order to move a personality to action both its rational and nonrational elements must be considered. They argue that in order to move an audience to action on a controversial matter, the argument must be addressed, in part, to those motives which are capable of actuating that audience. For that purpose an audience must be analyzed, its bias and interests determined, and the arguments must be selected and arranged with such bias and interests in mind. Thus the interests and bias of an audience are incorporated in the argument for the purpose of inducing belief or action. The effectiveness of an argument, then, is to be measured by the number of listeners it moves to believe or act as the speaker wants them to believe or act.

Let us now see what some of the textbooks have to say on this phase of the subject. In discussing what evidence is to be used in any given argument, one textbook has this to say:

[6] Italics mine.

[7] For an excellent discussion of this entire problem, see Edward Z. Rowell, "Prolegomena to Argumentation," THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XVIII (1932), 1-13, 224-248, 381-405, and 585-606.

Audience acceptability is the second[8] basic test which should be applied to evidence. If a situation exists where the evidence which is most logically adequate is also most acceptable to the audience, the problem of choosing evidence or the basic premises of the argument is then a relatively simple one. But if the evidence which is most desirable from a purely logical standpoint is at variance with the beliefs of the audience and cannot be made immediately acceptable to them, the speaker is then confronted with a real problem. Which test shall be the primary guide in selecting evidence? This question the arguer must answer for himself. Generally speaking, if immediate conviction or prompt action is sought, audience acceptability should be the primary consideration; and if studied, deliberative judgment or action, based on investigation and mature consideration, is desired, then logical adequacy should take precedence.

In summarizing the whole discussion of motivation, the same textbook continues in the following vein:

It has been our purpose in this chapter to set forth a technique which will enable the persuader to take advantage of the desires of the reactor. The methodology is almost wholly psychological rather than logical and has little, if any, probative power. Nevertheless, its peculiar persuasive values and its wide usage make it a form of argument with which students of the subject should be thoroughly familiar.

And to the same effect this statement from another textbook:

Such self-analysis[9] will encourage you to analyze the group before whom you are to debate. With such insight into your group, you can capitalize rather than combat these deeply grounded emotional sets; your arguments will be shaped in the light of these audience determinants.

Another textbook, in discussing methods of gaining a favorable reaction from the audience, places considerable emphasis upon the utilization of basic beliefs of the audience. After a discussion of the nature and kinds of beliefs, the section closes with the following remarks:

In the preceding discussion emphasis has been laid on the acceptability of basic premises, but nothing has been said about their truth. This may have suggested the query, "Must not a basic premise be true as well as acceptable to the audience?"

The purpose of an argument is to secure the acceptance of the arguer's thesis. The only requirement which this purpose makes of basic premises is that they be acceptable to the audience. As an audience will sometimes accept false premises, the answer to the question proposed above is that an argument need not be based on true premises to be effective. The question whether a speaker shall employ what he believes to be false premises is consequently not a rhetorical, but an ethical problem, which must be decided according to the same principles of honor and decency that govern the speech of honest men in private conversation. Whether or not there are times when one is justified in intentionally deceiving an audience is a problem in casuistry into which we shall not enter except to say that it is essentially the same problem whether one is speaking to a thousand people or conversing with a single man, and that it is only one phase of the old problem "May one justifiably do evil that good may result?" From the lower ground of expediency it is wholesome to reflect that the arguer who does attempt to deceive an audience risks exposure to a greater extent, generally speaking, than does one in ordinary conversation.[10]

This brief survey of representative textbooks makes amply clear, what writers on the subject would perhaps not deny, that of all the courses in the liberal arts curriculum, those in public speaking and argumentation have been advertised as the most practical and useful in the achievement of personal success. It is therefore not surprising that until very recently textbooks on argumentation have tended to cater more or less to the special needs of the college debater, since excellence in college debating has been universally regarded as an indubitable

[8] Logical adequacy is the first test discussed.

[9] The author had just discussed the desirability of self-analysis by the speaker as a means of discovering *his own* prejudices.

[10] This is from the textbook which defines argumentation as the art of influencing belief and conduct by an appeal addressed "primarily to the understanding."

asset in a business or professional career, the goal of which—if we must speak honestly—has been generally regarded as the accumulation of wealth. In the achievement of this special aim, speech teachers have been shrewd enough to realize that the ability to influence the belief and conduct of one's fellows is indispensable. Hence, the utilitarian orientation of courses and textbooks in argumentation.

Some Critical Considerations

Before proceeding with a criticism of what has been outlined in the preceding section, it is advisable to state the general premises upon which this entire inquiry is predicated. I am in perfect agreement with the Commission on Social Studies[11] that we are in a period of transition from *laissez faire* to a social order the guiding principle of which will be, it is hoped, cooperation. The condition of survival for our culture is cooperation for the achievement of a thorough-going political and economic democracy. No truth today is more impressive than this; and if the current gigantic struggle will further this ideal, the cost will not be regretted. Meanwhile, education must assume leadership in spreading the gospel of democracy and cooperation where it can do so unobtrusively. These the writer accepts as self-evident truths, and as such they constitute his special bias.

Is it not clear that in our anxiety to aid students in their "search for skill and power" we speech teachers have been often inclined to forget our function as educators? In defining argumentation as the art of influencing belief and conduct,[12] in measuring the adequacy of an argument by its power to elicit a specific reaction from an audience, in emphasizing personal success as the reward for proficiency in the art, and in dismissing as irrelevant the ethical problem involved in selecting the means to be employed in an argument, have we not acted somewhat uncritically? Argumentation is certainly something more than the art of influencing belief and conduct. As employed by all great thinkers, from Socrates to the eminent philosophers and social scientists of our generation, it is also a means of ascertaining truth in those fields of knowledge where laboratory experimentation is either impossible or inexpedient. It is the process of resolving perplexities, of discovering and solving problems in ethics, esthetics, philosophy, and the social sciences. As such, it is primarily inquiry, interpretation of data, formulation and verification of conclusions, *without the slightest reference to an audience*. It is only when the process and its results are communicated to others, orally or in writing, that belief and conduct may be influenced; and then it is not the art that influences, but rather a truth discovered and made intelligible to other minds.[13]

Thus, in defining argumentation as the art of influencing belief and conduct, and in insisting that the adequacy of an argument is to be measured by its power to bend an audience to the speaker's (or writer's) will, we have been inclined to neglect its logical adequacy. This initial error has, quite naturally, led to the further error of dismissing as irrelevant the ethical problem involved in selecting the means to be employed in an argument the purpose of which is to influence belief and conduct. It was inevitable that, having defined our objective and meas-

[11] *Supra*, footnote 1.

[12] In a very legitimate sense, the ultimate end of *education* may be defined as the influencing of belief and conduct through the diffusion of knowledge. Certainly educational theory is construed upon the valid premise that the difference between the informed and the uninformed, on any vital social controversy, is likely to be the difference between rational and irrational action regarding it.

[13] It is not denied, of course, that the process is abused, and that truth does not always influence the belief and conduct of many. Whether those to whom truth is not readily intelligible should be influenced by other means, involves a problem discussed elsewhere in this inquiry.

ure of adequacy as stated above, we should stress persuasive techniques, and pass on to the moral philosopher the ethical problem which was bound to emerge. Especially during the past two decades, we have devoted increasing attention to the psychological factors, to the technique of persuasion as redefined by current psychology. As our examination of representative textbooks has shown, some have gone so far in this direction as to make audience acceptability a basic test for evidence. The consequence of this tendency has been that our argumentation textbooks have become more and more indistinguishable from salesmen's manuals. In order to influence belief and conduct we have gone to psychology to learn where man is most vulnerable that we may teach how to attack him where he is least able to resist. No other conclusion can be fairly drawn from a sober analysis of the textbooks.

Writers on argumentation have, of course, been aware of the educational problem which emerges from this emphasis. Is it desirable, is it educationally sound, to teach students that in an argument those means are to be employed which will yield results, regardless of their logical adequacy? This question has been systematically dismissed as irrelevant. The problem, so the argument runs, is one in ethics and not in argumentation. The means we place in the student's hands may be used for either good or evil. It is hoped that students will use such means "according to the same principles of honor and decency that govern the speech of honest men in private conversation."

That, we believe, is an uncritical disposal of the problem. Such an attitude rests upon several unwarranted assumptions. The first is that knowledge is virtue. A second is that students will bring to bear upon an argumentative situation the rules of conduct learned as *abstract principles* in an ethics class. The final assumption is that the end justifies the means. Space does not permit a complete analysis of these assumptions. In regard to the first, however, it can hardly be denied that knowledge is power rather than virtue; and that when knowledge is imparted as a mere tool, apart from any consideration of social purposes, the probability is that it will be used merely as an instrument for the attainment of personal aims. The student, knowing no other integrating principle than his own needs and desires, tends to interpret and use his information accordingly.[14]

Nor is there any justification for the second assumption, namely, that students will bring to bear upon an argumentative situation the ethical principles learned in a course in ethics. Here there are two serious difficulties. In the first place, the majority of students never take a course in ethics, while those who do are exposed to it for only a short time. In the second place, the average university does not offer a student an integrated curriculum. Courses are not related for the purpose of achieving a single end. Consequently, there is no justification for supposing that a brilliant student in ethics will base his conduct in an argumentative situation upon moral principles. The course in ethics deals no more with argumentative situations than a course in argumentation deals with ethics. So long as we do not specifically enjoin unsocial practices, the hope that a student in an argumentative situation will become, in some mysterious way, an ethical philosopher is wholly unwarranted.

The real difficulty, however, emerges with the assumption that the end justifies the means. There is general agree-

[14] On the assumption that knowledge is virtue as a premise in education, see George S. Counts, *The Social Foundations of Education* (New York, 1934). Professor Counts' book is Part IX of the *Report of the Commission on Social Studies*.

ment among authors of textbooks that rhetorical devices are neutral and may be used for worthy or unworthy purposes, depending upon the conscience of the one who uses them. They are further agreed that when used for socially desirable ends, their use is beyond reproach. We shall try to make clear that the rhetorical means borrowed from psychology are not neutral, and that whether used for worthy or unworthy ends, the practice is educationally questionable.

The nonlogical means used in an argument are never neutral. The utilization of prejudices and logically questionable premises and evidence, merely because they are acceptable to an audience, in short, the use of psychological techniques designed to make an audience react when it would have remained indifferent to a dispassionate, rational argument, has definite consequences for both the audience and the speaker. The repeated appeal to nonrational sources of action in an individual can only serve to intensify irrationality. The appeal to the Nordic myth in Germany by Hitler, as a means of inducing Germans to act in a certain way, has already resulted in a dangerous intensification of that prejudice among Germans. Mussolini's appeal to the Italian's irrational attitude toward his Roman ancestry has already done much toward making that prejudice an important consideration in the behavior of every fascist-indoctrinated Italian. No matter what the prejudice, repeated appeal to it will tend to intensify it and, ultimately, make it the controlling force in behavior. In so far as this is true, rhetorical skill, no matter for what purposes used, cannot be said to be neutral. Its use has serious consequences quite distinct from the consequences of the behavior provoked on whatever happens to be the question in issue.[15] These consequences are forcefully stated by William Kingdon Clifford in his essay "The Ethics of Belief":

> Every time we let ourselves believe for unworthy reasons, we weaken our power of self-control, of doubting, of judicially and fairly weighing evidence. We all suffer severely enough from the maintenance and support of false beliefs and the fatally wrong actions which they lead to, and the evil born when one such belief is entertained is great and wide. But a greater and wider evil arises when the credulous character is maintained and supported, when a habit of believing for unworthy reasons is fostered and made permanent. If I steal money from any person, there may be no harm done by the mere transfer of possession; he may not feel the loss, or it may prevent him from using the money badly. But I cannot help doing this great harm towards Man, that I make myself dishonest. What hurts society is not that it should lose its property, but that it should become a den of thieves; for then it must cease to be society. This is why we ought not to do evil that good may come; for at any rate this great evil has come, that we have done evil and are made wicked thereby. In like manner, if I let myself believe anything on insufficient evidence, there may be no great harm done by the mere belief; it may be true after all, or I may never have occasion to exhibit it in outward acts. But I cannot help doing this great wrong towards Man, that I make myself credulous. The danger to society is not merely that it should believe wrong things, though that is great enough; but that it should become credulous, and lose the habit of testing things and inquiring into them; for then it must sink back into savagery.

The consequences are simply that irrational personality traits are intensified. Is this educationally sound and socially desirable? The question cannot be answered without certain qualifications.

[15] The real question at issue here is whether, on the mere plea of expediency, it is ever ethically defensible and socially and educationally desirable, to persuade people to accept conclusions, however true they may be, on other than rational grounds. The classic discussion of this problem is John Morley's "Of the Possible Utility of Error," and Clifford's essay from which we have quoted. For a strictly philosophical treatment of certain phases of the problem, see Plato's *Thaetetus*. William James, in his essay, "The Will to Believe," defends a position opposed to that of Clifford.

There are certainly many actions which neither could nor should be inspired by reason.[16] With such we are not concerned here. Few educators, however will deny that social, political, and economic problems should be acted upon rationally. Such problems, it is generally agreed, are settled satisfactorily and with relative permanence when men act rationally in regard to them. Our finest educational tradition has always insisted, however inadequately and gropingly, that social progress awaits the day when men shall learn to reason in matters which affect their common welfare; and that the special function of the educator is to train the mind in habits of accurate, orderly thought.

> While it is not the business of education to prove every statement made, any more than to teach every possible item of information, it is its business to cultivate deep-seated and effective habits of discriminating tested beliefs from mere assertions, guesses, and opinions; to develop lively, sincere, and open-minded preference for conclusions that are properly grounded, and to ingrain into the individual's working habits methods of inquiry and reasoning appropriate to the various problems that present themselves. No matter how much an individual knows as a matter of hearsay and information, if he has not attitudes and habits of this sort, he is not intellectually educated. He lacks the rudiments of mental discipline. And since these habits are not a gift of nature (no matter how strong the aptitudes for acquiring them); since, moreover, the casual circumstances of the natural and social environment are not enough to compel their acquisition, the main office of education is to supply conditions that make for their cultivation. The formation of these habits is the Training of Mind.[17]

Granted, then, that an argument which taps irrational sources of action may be devoted to irreproachable ends, nevertheless, the practice is, at best, educationally questionable. As Justice Holmes once said in one of his brilliant dissenting opinions, in a case involving the admissability of evidence secured by wire-tapping, "We have to choose, and for my part I think it a less evil that some criminals should escape than that the government should play an ignoble part."[18] So it seems a lesser evil that some argument should fail than that the one engaged in it should employ techniques which strengthen irrationality in both the speaker and the listener.

Argumentation and Cooperative Thinking

The question to which writers on argumentation must devote increasing attention emerges from the foregoing considerations: Is it educationally sound to define argumentation as the art of influencing belief and conduct, and to emphasize personal success as the special reward for proficiency in argument? In my opinion, much that is unsound in the standard tradition is attributable to our uncritical acceptance of aims and incentives. If we define our goal as being to teach students how to influence belief and conduct, and conveniently dispose of as irrelevant the ethical problem which inevitably arises, we thereby set the pace for an effective course in rabble-rousing, notwithstanding our protestations to the contrary. Once that goal is accepted, there is no escaping the consequences: the standard of excellence becomes the successful demagogue.

Is there no alternative? The suggestion about to be made is so unfamiliar that it is likely to shock many of us who are accustomed to thinking in terms of the standard tradition. Our first duty is to define realistically the scope of argu-

[16] For an excellent discussion of this problem, see Bertrand Russell's essay, "On the Value of Scepticism."

[17] John Dewey, *How We Think* (Boston, 1910), pp. 27-28.

[18] *Olmstead et al. v. United States*, 277 U.S. 438, 469.

mentation *as an element in the curriculum*. Argumentative situations are many and varied. They range from the most commonplace and amiable arguments in the home to the most rigidly logical researches of the scholar. It has been our habit in the past to enumerate all possible argumentative situations and to include them all within the scope of a course in argumentation. The tendency, as has already been observed, has been to emphasize the more practical purposes to which argument may be put, and to appeal to them as the special lure for enticing student and layman alike to the study of our discipline. Textbooks address themselves confidently to the prospective teacher, preacher, lawyer, salesman, and business executive.

In defining the scope of argumentation thus indiscriminately, we have tended to neglect what should really be our principal concern: *the function of our course in the curriculum of a university*. Should it aid in making more successful preachers, lawyers, and salesmen or, more modestly, should it contribute to the general education of the individual? If we choose the latter alternative, as it seems to me we must, we are then confronted with a further query: How, specifically, may argumentation contribute to the general education of the student? The answer is unassuming. Argumentation may contribute to the general education of the student by teaching him how to think and how to communicate his thoughts to others.[19] And since thinking must always be applied to a specific subject-matter, it is suggested that the scope of argumentation should be the *methodical study of social problems*. The course would, accordingly, provide instruction on (1) how to resolve such problems in accordance with the scientific method, (2) how to present findings to others orally, as well as in writing, and (3) in methods of cooperative inquiry and discussion.

The element of cooperation needs some emphasis. It must be made clear that both the discovery of the problem and the inquiry involved in its ultimate solution are essentially the result of cooperative thinking, a "thinking together," since a problem emerges and is solved through the joint effort of many minds. The oral presentation of findings and alternative solutions, especially as a collegiate activity of indubitable educational value, should be made a cooperative task through public forums and symposia. The emphasis should be, not on influencing belief and conduct, but on exhaustive inquiry, sound reasoning, and clear, dispassionate presentation. To do this is to make argumentation *educationally* and *socially* significant, and those trained in it better and more useful members of a democratic state.

But is not the purpose of an argument *actually* to influence belief and conduct? To this question there are two answers. The first is that what *is* does not necessarily satisfy the demands of what *ought* to be. The second is that real progress is made through the diffusion of knowledge, and not through widespread skill and in the technique of indiscriminately influencing human behavior. It cannot be denied that arguments are presented for the purpose of influencing the belief and conduct of a given audience, irrespective of the means employed. That sort of thing happens every day; but it represents an abuse for which education should be a constant corrective. The fact that it is done is in no sense a justification for perpetuating the practice by in-

[19] It may be objected that this is, in a sense, the general purpose of education. Indeed, education aspires to achieve this general end. But a curriculum which presents competing departments and a wide variety of undergraduate majors, more or less designed to equip the student for the earning of his daily bread, does not often produce students capable of thinking, in the sense in which the word is used here.

struction in the classroom. As has already been pointed out, by defining argumentation as the art of influencing belief and conduct, we immediately imply an emphasis upon techniques of persuasion and leave out of consideration, in the definition, argument as a truth-establishing process. There is nothing wrong with influencing belief and conduct, so long as a truth communicated rather than sophistry does the influencing. It is the thesis of this entire criticism that argumentation must be taught as a process of discovering and communicating whatever truth may be discoverable in a given social controversy; and that belief and conduct, if not influenced by a presentation of *all* the facts in a given controversy, had better not be influenced at all.[20]

For after all, there would seem to be little question that real progress is made through diffusion of knowledge rather than through widespread skill in the technique of indiscriminately influencing human behavior. The people who are now living under iron-fisted, irrational dictatorships will, sooner or later, find it necessary to retreat from the position into which they have been herded by men skilled in influencing human behavior; and if the New Deal, or any other kind of deal, is to solve our current problems, it will do so through the utilization and diffusion of knowledge, through the encouragement of frank and open discussion of all problems, and not through *merely* influencing people to vote a certain ticket. Knowledge, not oratory, must motivate action. As educators we cannot accept any other deal.

And if we do accept it? The implications for our profession are important. The study of evidence, inference, effective oral and written communication, and scholarly research methods must be made the core of an argumentation course. How and where to find information—that is the first essential in attacking a problem. What is evidence? When is it valid? Who are the experts on a given problem? How are their reliability and authority to be tested? What is the legitimate use of statistics? What may be validly inferred from a given set of facts? The answer to these questions is the crucial guide in solving social problems.

Mere solutions, however, are meaningless. They are significant only when they are made to subserve definite social purposes, group ideals. Mere descriptive analysis in an argument is not enough. As members of a community we must choose from alternative policies and courses of action; and our choice will be determined by what *we cooperatively* deem desirable for the welfare of the group. Therefore, a clear recognition of social purposes is an important ingredient in argument. Whether or not we actually believe in civil liberties as a social ideal will determine the solution we propose to a problem in which they are the dominating factor. In a given controversy, the well-defined social ideals of the group are the frame of reference in solving social problems.[21]

If we agree that what has thus far been said is sound, the ethical implications in a given argumentative situation are fairly obvious. In defining the aim of argumentation as teaching students how to resolve social problems in accordance with the scientific method, and how to present their findings to other people, we have pretty definitely delimited the ethical standards which are positive elements in the entire argumentative process. The

[20] If it is objected that this is a flight into Utopia, the answer is simply that it is the function of the educator to make the Utopia of today the reality of tomorrow.

[21] Limitations of space prevent such detailed elaboration of these generalizations as the writer would like to present.

first of these in an argument on a social problem, is a clear statement of social purposes or ideals which give meaning to the solution presented. Such social ideals as the preservation of civil liberties, equality of opportunity, a high standard of living for all who are willing to work, the extension of democratic processes, etc., are group objectives which should provide the desired orientation in dealing with social problems to which competing solutions are offered. It is ethically incumbent upon the speaker or writer to relate his inquiry and conclusions to such social ideals.[22]

Once the social purposes which give meaning to a solution are stated clearly and emphatically, the second positive, ethical, element in an argument is a consideration of all relevant facts, regardless of the attitude of a given audience toward them. Audience acceptability should *never* be made a test for evidence and premises used in an argument. Once the social objectives have been defined and the issues clarified in a given controversy, those engaged in it are ethically bound to consider all the facts which are in any way relevant. In other words, truth must be made the controlling factor in all argument.

Nor is there any ambiguity in this much-abused word; for we refer here not to *abstract* truth but to truth in a definite context. A conclusion on a given social problem is true, which, when acted upon, definitely contributes to the achievement of group ideals. Here we realize again the crucial importance of stating relevant group objectives as organic parts of the argument. A contemporary problem of great importance is emerging from the army and navy physical examinations. It is clear that in a democracy where there is neither a scarcity of food nor of medical resources, the health of the people is not satisfactory. What can we do about it? Shall we socialize medicine as we have the schools? Shall we continue with the *status quo* and increase the activity of charitable institutions? Shall we encourage group medicine? Shall we enlarge the Federal public health program?

There are some of the possible solutions. Which is true, in the sense that it will really solve the problem? To this question there is but one answer: that solution is true which, when acted upon, will further whatever group ideals are involved in the controversy.[23] It is truth in this sense that must prevail in all argument. Devotion to such truth is not a matter of private conscience; it is a social responsibility of far-reaching implications. To dismiss it as irrelevant is an ignoble act of which no educator should permit himself to be guilty.

Thus radically to redefine the objectives and technique of argumentation may seem a harsh demand to make of those steeped in the standard tradition. But if, in the words of Professor Rowell, argumentation is to have "more of the beyond-the-classroom social outlook" and if it "needs to relate itself definitely and fully not only to the students' search for skill and power but also to the general aims of higher education," there would seem to be no alternative. To most of us it will seem heretical to cease thinking of argumentation in terms of influencing belief and conduct. But we must remember that we are first of all educators, charged with the profoundest social responsibility. Our first task is to train stu-

[22] I do not mean to say, of course, that to fail in this respect is sinful. I use the word *ethical* in the Socratic sense.

[23] For obvious reasons I cannot formulate here what specific national ideals are involved in the solution to this problem. But it must be clear that an argument for any social policy of any importance must be predicated on common group ideals accepted as premises. It is also often necessary in an argument to point out that opposing views rest on an "inarticulate premise" which is really at odds with accepted group ideals.

dents capable of thinking in terms of society rather than in terms of self. In a world that is becoming more integrated and interdependent, the future of democracy will depend more and more upon cooperative thinking and cooperative action. Are we big enough to seize the opportunity and take up the challenge?

GEORGE WHITEFIELD: GOD'S COMMONER

C. HAROLD KING
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MOST of the great orators who have attracted the interest of scholars have left speeches regarded as literature. I present to you a man who was not literary but who, by way of compensation, became the champion revivalist in eighteenth-century England, Scotland, Wales and America, who, as the central figure in The Great Awakening, stimulated the first popular movement on this continent, who, by initiating field preaching, enabled a fledgling Methodist movement to reach the masses and thus become a prime factor in saving England from a French Revolution. In a career of thirty-four years this man travelled 40,000 miles and preached 18,000 sermons. For him, on occasion, as many as 25,000 auditors stood in the open air. He had a voice so powerful that his preaching could be heard a mile away and so melodious that Garrick is reported to have said, "I would give a hundred guineas if I could say 'O' like Mr. Whitefield."[1] Lecky has summarized the verdict of sober history when he says that Whitefield "as a popular preacher indeed . . . appears never to have been equalled in England."[2]

If conventional standards will not explain Whitefield then we must find others, for here we have an authentic witness in the perennial question, "In what does eloquence consist?" His technique must be examined, of course, and I assume technique to include message, presentation of message and delivery. But that is not enough. The audience matters a great deal. It is as if the audience and speaker met halfway and worked out the technique between them. It is essential to learn the nature of Whitefield's audience and to find out what made it particularly receptive.

Whitefield was extremely versatile and could charm one, ten, a hundred as readily as twenty-five thousand. Nevertheless, it was the multitude that brought out his most distinctive features. His audiences were not only large but varied. Negroes listened in the Bermudas. Apprentices crowded the Moorfields. Merchants heard him talk metaphorically of goods bought and sold. Soldiers and sailors listened to him speak in the shadow of the Rock of Gibraltar where several ships were drawn up within hearing distance. Judges adjourned their sittings when he was in town. Governors accompanied him on his journeys. Titled aristocracy entertained him at their mansions. Shuter, the comedian, and Chesterfield came to the "Soul Trap," one of his tabernacles. Franklin stood in Market Street while the evangelist preached from the courthouse steps in Philadelphia. Princes of the Church listened at Lady Hunting-

[1] E. S. Ninde, *George Whitefield, Prophet Preacher* (New York and Cincinnati, 1924), p. 132.
[2] W. E. H. Lecky, *A History of England in the Eighteenth Century*, 8 vols. (London, 1879), II, 567-568.

don's Chapel at Bath behind curtains—unobserved.[3] Hume said of one of Whitefield's passages, "This address . . . surpassed anything I ever heard in any other preacher."[4]

But this catholic picture must be qualified somewhat. In spite of the knowledge that every now and then "a fine gentleman was touched" and in spite of the fact that his oratory was praised by men of great names, we also know that, on the whole, the aristocracy of brains and rank remained to praise but not to be converted. The most responsive elements came from the lower and lower middle classes. Such is the case in most revivals. The have-nots lead a dull life. They have not color in their lives, and the drama of revival quickens their dull pulse. They have not material sustenance, and the evangelist tells them of riches that will not corrupt. They have not dignity, and they learn that God values especially the humble.

The masses of eighteenth-century England were particularly receptive to the revivalist's plea. The intelligentsia fondly believed that Reason was King and to its bar of judgment were brought all things in Heaven and Earth. But the have-nots were unaware that it was the Age of Common Sense. Had they been analytical, they would have understood the disruptive effects of the Industrial Revolution upon their rhythms of life.[5] Had they been critical, they would have denounced the absurdity of putting their fellows in prison for debt where their solvency was reduced to zero. Had they been observant, they would have known how many of their friends had gone to America where something might turn up. Had they been class conscious, they would have rebelled against those who had the power but not the desire to help them. Had they been articulate, they might have apostrophied their betters, "O Masters, why hast thou forsaken us?"

But the depressed classes of eighteenth-century England were not class conscious; nor were they critical, nor observant, nor articulate, but, like dumb animals in pain, sought relief that was convenient and within their means. Hogarth's picture of "Gin Lane" is hardly an exaggeration. An advertisement, appearing in London in 1727, promised "a mad bull to be dressed up with fireworks and to be baited."[6] In the stupor of drink or in sadistic whoops over the sufferings of creatures a little lower than themselves, the masses of England found surcease from misery. Here was the material for revolution, once a leader was found.

How did the Church, classic haven for the oppressed, respond to this challenge? Ah! the Church had become rational. The Anglican divines and the comfortable parishioners who languidly adorned the pews were satisfied that they had at last made Christianity reasonable.

But George Whitefield, a champion of the people, had risen. He proclaimed that all men were damned by sin and that all men must be converted; that reasoned morality was ineffective, and, that good works were of no use. This was good Christian doctrine but embarrassing to those who had labored so hard to establish Christianity on a firm basis of probability. His association with dissenters was not nice. Neither was it nice to have respectable sanctuaries crowded with the rabble. One remembered the report that at his first sermon he had driven fifteen people mad. His doctrines were too lit-

[3] Called "Nicodemus's Corner." See *The Life and Times of the Countess of Huntingdon*, by a member of the Houses of Shirley and Hastings, 2 vols. (London, 1844), I, 477.

[4] James Paterson Gledstone, *George Whitefield, Field Preacher* (London, 1900), p. 247.

[5] J. L. and Barbara Hammond, *The Village Labourer, 1760-1832* (London, 1913) and *The Town Labourer, 1760-1832* (London, 1917).

[6] Abram Lipsky, *John Wesley* (New York, 1928), pp. 3-4.

eral for sanity; his conduct was too fervent. The Right Thinking People conjured an indictment to fit the crime. And for the greatest of eighteenth-century crimes there was a name. George Whitefield was definitely charged with Enthusiasm. So it came to pass that the Right Thinking People cried in unison, "Away with him from the Church of England!" and so it came that Whitefield took to the highways and byways. From tombstones, from market crosses, from hogsheads and at the convict's open grave he spoke to the common people and, as was so often remarked, "They heard him gladly."

How did this Commoner use his great power? He revealed to his hungry listeners a Promised Land wherein all inequalities in this life would be compensated. His message had a theological basis. His three doctrines were Original Sin, Justification by Faith, and Election. Original Sin meant that, through the indiscretion of Adam and Eve, man's nature was essentially depraved. "Remember, I beseech you to remember," he said, "that you are fallen creatures, that you are by Nature lost and estranged from God."[7] If this was bad news to the humble it was equally disconcerting to the proud, and thus it could be seen that all men were equal in the sight of God. If all men were equally vicious, they must all find relief in the same remedy: Justification by Faith leading to conversion. Thus, at a stroke, the humble man found himself on terms of equality with any on this earth, whereas in Heaven he would be especially blessed.

The Calvinistic doctrine of Election, or Predestination, is out of fashion. It seems to fit ill the role of a professional persuader. We can sympathize with critics who asked Whitefield why it was worth while trying to persuade a man to be good if he were predestined to Heaven or Hell anyway. As a matter of fact, Whitefield was not entirely consistent in what he told his audiences. For instance, he said, "When we are convinced of our need and helplessness, and of Jesus being a Redeemer, that is mighty and willing to save, a poor Soul throws himself upon this Jesus, ventures upon this Jesus, believes the Word and by venturing on this promise, receives from Jesus the thing promised."[8] To the average man who thinks he makes choices in everyday life, this sounds very much like offering him a reward if he will make a decision. In any case to the poor of this world, Whitefield offered the riches of the Hereafter. This was a message from which the established order had nothing to fear.

Whitefield's message was cast in a fashion that would attract the lowly. He was clear. That is, he translated what he had to say into terms of his listeners' experience. For instance, we all know the biblical statement that it is harder for a rich man to enter the Kingdom of Heaven, than for a camel to go through the eye of a needle. Whitefield knew that his listeners were not experienced in threading needles with camels. And so he makes the biblical passage read thus: "It is easier for a camel (or a cable rope) to go through the eye of a needle, than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of God."[9]

Whitefield was vivid. For instance, he pictures Zaccheus' physical situation and also his state of mind thus: "At length, after taking much pains, and going (as we shall suppose) through much contempt, Zaccheus has climbed the tree and there he sits, as he thinks, hid in the leaves of it, and watching when Jesus should pass by."[10]

Whitefield was dramatic. His most suc-

[7] George Whitefield, *Works*, 6 vols. (London, 1771-72), I, 64.

[8] *Works*, *op. cit.*, V, 64.

[9] John Gillies, *Memoirs of Rev. George Whitefield, to which is appended an extensive Collection of his Sermons and other Writings* (Middleton, 1837), p. 405.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 405.

cessful sermons were based on Bible stories, whose dramatic possibilities he realized: "The Seed of the Woman and the Seed of the Serpent" (the story of Adam and Eve), "Saul's Conversion," "Jacob's Ladder," "The Resurrection of Lazarus" and especially "Abraham's Offering up his Son." In the latter Whitefield portrays Abraham's unhesitating compliance with God's command, his forbearance from objections he might have made (enumerated by Whitefield), his walking behind his son so that he may look upon him as long as possible, the suspense of wondering if Isaac will resist and, of course, the climax when the Angel of the Lord halts Abraham's knife in midair. Whitefield's portrayal of this drama must have been effective, for he says at the end of it, "I see your hearts affected. I see your eyes weep."[11]

His powers of delivery were tremendous. One of his Philadelphia listeners recorded that, while preaching from the gallery of the courthouse in Market Street, three blocks from the Delaware River, Whitefield could be heard distinctly on board a shallop at Market Street Wharf, a distance of four hundred feet from the courthouse.[12] Benjamin Franklin said of his voice quality and dexterity, "Every accent, every emphasis, every modulation of voice, was so perfectly tun'd and well plac'd that, without being interested in the subject, one could not help being pleas'd with the discourse; a pleasure of much the same kind with that receiv'd from an excellent piece of music."[13]

Whitefield would have pleased Demosthenes in the matter of action. A contemporary expressed it very well when he said, "Every accent of his voice, every Motion of his Body *speaks*, and both are natural and unaffected. If his delivery is the Product of Art, 'tis certainly the perfection of it, for it is entirely concealed."[14]

If delivery comes from the whole man, then we must take into account Whitefield's tremendous earnestness and his dramatic instinct. Whatever sincerity means, it meant in his case going all out for his cause. So intense was he at times that he "exceedingly wept, stamped loudly and passionately, and was frequently so overcome that for a few seconds you would suspect that he never would recover. . . ."[15] Yet, extravagant as such conduct was, we have the assurance of Franklin and others that whatever Whitefield did seemed appropriate to the occasion.

This propriety in extravaganza was made possible by Whitefield's most useful trait, his dramatic sense. This it was that determined the symmetry of the total phenomenon. He selected from the Bible and from life's experience what was dramatic and adapted it for his own purpose. We find him at a trial "observing the formality of the judge putting on his black cap to pronounce sentence"[16] and then later coming up with this in a sermon:

> "I am going to put on my condemning cap. Sinner, I must do it; I must pronounce sentence upon you!" And then in a tremendous stream of eloquence describing the punishment of the wicked, he recited the words of Christ, "Depart from me, ye cursed, into everlasting fire, prepared for the Devil and his angels."[17]

His adaptability in dramatizing a total situation is reported in two excerpts from the *Gentleman's Magazine* of 1760. The

[11] George Whitefield, *Sermons on Important Subjects* (London, 1861), p. 65.

[12] Gillies, *Memoirs and Sermons, op. cit.*, 43, footnote.

[13] *Autobiography*, pp. 257-258.

[14] *New York Gazette* (Bradford's), Nov. 19-Nov. 26, 1739.

[15] William Jay, *Memoirs of the Life and Character of Rev. Cornelius Winter*, 1st American edition (1814), p. 22.

[16] Jay, *Memoirs of Cornelius Winter, op. cit.*, p. 18; Gillies, *Memoirs and Sermons, op. cit.*, p. 282.

[17] Jay, *op. cit.*, p. 18; Gillies, *op. cit.*, p. 264.

first act went as follows: "Ended the Sessions of Old Bailey which began the 16th when Robert Tilling, for robbing the House of Mr. *Lloyd* his Master, received the Sentence of Death."[18] Later the second act developed: "This evening there was a prodigious Concourse of People to hear Mr. Whitefield speak at Bunhill-fields, at the Grave of Robert Tilling. There was no burial office read; but after the Corpse had been laid in the Ground sometime, Mr. Whitefield came into the Burying-Ground, and in a declamatory way, showed how the Wages of Sin is Death; gave some Account of the Malefactor's penitence; exhorted all in general to turn from their Vices and come to Christ; and pressed all Servants in particular to take Warning by the Criminal's Execution, and show all Fidelity to their Masters."[19]

This last example illustrates fairly well the dramatic instinct that synchronized the phenomenon Whitefield, the settings in which he worked, the technique of field preaching, the kind of people who made up his clientele, the remedy he offered for grievous ills and the value to well ordered society of a revolutionist who used his power over the multitude to influence them to adhere to established mores and to seek amelioration of their lot in the Hereafter. The ancient Romans gave power and honor to those, who, by judicious distribution of bread, quieted the populace. Whitefield held the common people in line by merely promising them eternal life and the Right Thinking People of the eighteenth century heaped obloquy upon him.

[18] *The Gentleman's Magazine*, XXX (1760), 200.

[19] *Idem*, 245-246.

JONATHAN P. DOLLIVER'S SENATE TARIFF ADDRESSES OF 1909

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CRISES usually produce great speakers and speeches, and tariff changes usually accompany, if they do not produce, situations almost serious enough to be labeled crises. "The history of tariff reform is a record of failure. . . . [It] always creates division in the party proposing it."[1] Back in 1909, Jonathan P. Dolliver of Iowa, in the Senate tariff debates of that year, did what is usually considered the best speaking of his interesting career.

Although no biographies of Dolliver have been written, historians reviewing the period of the early 1900's give considerable attention to him and his career as a speaker. During the special session of 1909 his attitude towards the nation's tariff policy outwardly underwent a sudden and complete reversal,[2] and he bitterly opposed the proposed tariff bill together with those responsible for the schedules it contained. The significance of these tariff debates assumes greater proportions in view of the fact that a little over a year after this extremely strenuous session Dolliver unexpectedly died at the moment when he seemed to have reached his greatest ability.

Albert J. Beveridge, speaking in In-

[1] Henry F. Pringle, *Life and Times of Wm. Howard Taft* (1939), I, 418, 421.

[2] The following references include typical statements made by Dolliver in favor of high tariffs: *Congressional Record*, Vol. 21, 11, 51 Congress, 1 Session, Sept. 27, 1890; p. 10594; Vol. 23, 3, 52 Congress, 1 Session, March 29, 1892, p. 2666; Vol. 26, 1, 53 Congress, 2 Session, Jan. 11, 1894, p. 734.

diana after Dolliver's death, said, "Step by step, fighting the people's fight, he went to his grave. He died a martyr to the cause of the people."[3] Bowers described him as "working like a galley slave day and night."[4] Dolliver stated his attitude in these words:

> I know of no labor and no fatigue and no expenditure of time and attention which I am not willing to undergo to properly forward the consideration of the bill.[5]

I shall attempt a recreation of the speech situation in which Jonathan Dolliver appeared during the Senate tariff debates of 1909 and a systematic analysis and evaluation of his specific addresses. Three speeches will be considered, those of May 4-5, June 5, and August 5. The Aristotelian division of the forms of proof into the logical, ethical, and pathetic modes will be used in the analysis.

Consider first the interacting forces of the speaker, the speech, the occasion, and the audience. Besides the actual speech, the background of previous events and audience attitudes should be considered.[6]

The Occasion

On March 4, 1909, William Howard Taft, the newly inaugurated President, called Congress into extra session for the purpose of revising the Dingley Tariff Act of 1897. The President in his campaign speeches had definitely promised downward revision but the Republican party leaders had not committed themselves and were secretly opposed to enacting legislation that might reduce the duties even in a slight degree.

Nelson W. Aldrich of Rhode Island, Chairman of the Senate Finance Committee and acknowledged leader of the Republican party, dominated the Senate in 1909. At the beginning of the special session of the Sixty-first Congress he began to formulate the tariff provisions for the welfare of the intrenched interests that he represented. A small group of Mid-Western Republicans determined to resist.[7] One of their first moves was to secure the aid of Jonathan Dolliver, who up until that time had consistently followed the dictates of his party.

> During the greater part of this time, he was content to be the party manager's medium of expression. It was as an organization man and a "regular" that he entered the Senate.[8]

Robert M. La Follette of Wisconsin appealed to Dolliver to take his stand with the Progressives. Dolliver gladly agreed to join La Follette's group, and according to the Wisconsin senator, told him.

> From this time on I am going to be independent. I am going to serve my conscience. I am going to judgement in the next twenty years, and I am going so I can look my Maker in the face. I do not have to stay in public life. I can take my books, my wife, and my children, and if I am dismissed from the service for following my conviction I will go out to my farm, and stay there until the call comes.[9]

Whether the death of Allison, the senior Senator from Iowa, freed him from a promise to remain silent during Allison's lifetime; whether he was simply angered by Aldrich's refusal to place him upon the Senate Finance Committee and vowed revenge; or whether his honest convictions brought a sudden realization of fraud and corruption in the formation of the tariff, probably will make but little difference to the posi-

[3] "Dolliver—A Tribune of the People," *American Review of Reviews*, XLII (1910), 681-4.

[4] Claude G. Bowers, *Beveridge and the Progressive Era* (1932), p. 344.

[5] *Congressional Record*, June 1, 1909, p. 2604.

[6] "Understanding . . . requires, on the part of the critic, a strong historical sense for the ideas and attitudes of the people . . . and a full knowledge of the public opinion of the times in which the orator spoke." Herbert A. Wichelns, "The Literary Criticism of Oratory," in *Studies in Rhetoric and Public Speaking in Honor of James A. Winans* (1925), p. 196.

[7] The original group included Beveridge of Indiana, Bristow of Kansas, Brown and Burkett of Nebraska, Clapp and Nelson of Minnesota, Crawford of South Dakota, Cummins of Iowa, and La Follette of Wisconsin.

[8] Bowers, *op. cit.*, p. 328.

[9] *La Follette's Autobiography* (1913), pp. 434-35.

tion history eventually accords Dolliver. Certain it is that the special session of Congress called by Taft in 1909 produced one of the most spectacular parliamentary efforts in American history.

The Audience

The immediate audience addressed by Senator Dolliver on May 4 and 5 of 1909 was the Sixty-first Congress of the United States Senate. Included in that audience were 32 Democrats and 60 Republicans. The Republicans who controlled the Senate were in turn dominated by Aldrich. The group of 60 Republicans had in its ranks 10 Mid-Westerners who long before the end of the session were stamped as Insurgents because they dared question the policies of the leaders of the Republican party.

Although few in numbers, this insurgent group played an important part in the Senate discussions. They often joined forces with a large percentage of the 32 Democrats. At first there was a possibility that a group of Senators from the Far West might be persuaded to join with the Progressives and the Democrats. These hopes of coalition disappeared when Aldrich consolidated his forces by promising each group, including the Southerners who were interested in lumber, those protective duties their constituents wanted.

The most important audience to a speaker before the United States Congress is the people back home, and according to the newspapers of Iowa, Dolliver was never more popular in his home state than during his fight against the Payne-Aldrich tariff.[10]

At the turn of the twentieth century some Iowans, although still professing their faith in the fundamental theory of protective tariff, were, nevertheless, beginning to advocate an economic doctrine called the "Iowa Idea." A fair interpretation of the "Iowa Idea" seems to be that its sponsors were trying to retard the imposition of still higher tariffs, without suffering the accusation of being free-traders or bringing upon themselves the wrath of old-line Republicans.[11] Consequently, as far as Dolliver's home audience was concerned, his message was of the nature to be received with favor.

Within the national Republican party, the break between the conservative leaders and the Insurgents gradually widened. By June reconciliation seemed improbable; by July, impossible.

Organization in the Addresses

Each of Dolliver's tariff addresses of 1909 had a specific thesis idea which the speaker developed throughout the entire speech.[12] The addresses of May 4-5 and of June 5 fall into good outline form. On August 5 the speaker was not so much interested in getting specific action from his audience but wanted to leave a general impression in regard to his own sincerity and accuracy. This may explain why his presentation was not as well organized as on the two previous occasions. The speech of May 4-5 criticized specific provisions of the woolen and cotton tariff schedules in the proposed bill. The ad-

[10] *Des Moines Register and Leader*, April 25, 1909, p. 1. "Iowa Editorial Gossip," *Fort Dodge Messenger*, May 25, 1909. (Excerpts are included from the following papers: *Shenandoah Sentinel-Post*, *Hawarden Independent*, and *Spirit Lake Beacon*.

[11] George E. Roberts, "Origin and History of the Iowa Idea," *Iowa Journal of History and Politics* II (1904), 69-83.

[12] In the address of May 4-5 Dolliver at no place stated his exact thesis which, however, was obviously as follows: A great many changes advocated in the tariff bill under consideration are injurious to the best interests of the public and were designed to promote the welfare of certain private corporations and interests.

On June 5 Dolliver developed one central idea which he stated several times, "The great question before the Senate is whether the Dingley cotton schedule, operating well for twelve years, ought to be disturbed." *Congressional Record*, June 5, 1909, p. 2814.

On August 5 he again repeated his main idea a number of times. "I have said and I have done; and I do not now propose to repudiate my words or make my actions contemptible before men by acquiescing in the programme which is now to pass the Senate under belated pressure of party authority and influence." *Congressional Record*, August 5, 1909, p. 4931.

dress a month later, on June 5, maintained the advantages of the original cotton schedules of the Dingley Act but was organized at the same time to refute the various advanced claims of needs for changes in that act.

Use of Logical Mode

A. Main Lines of Proof

In the address of May 4-5 Dolliver argued that American industry had undergone a change and great corporations had come into existence which should not be unfairly favored. Since Theodore Roosevelt had previously stated a similar belief and, some economists and historians support that principle, the idea was well accepted by the audience and can be considered reasonably sound.[13]

Dolliver attempted to prove that the woolen schedule was the result of a meeting of wool producers and weavers who had assembled in 1867 and whose ideas had been continued. His evidence consisted of only one authority but he did prove that the woolen schedules then in effect had been simply handed down unchanged for many years.

On the other hand, he believed the cotton tariffs should remain exactly as they were under the Dingley law. His arguments were directed towards two purposes: first, that changes were unnecessary; second, that the bill under consideration was changing the rates in ways not easily recognized.

The address of June 5 consisted entirely of refuting the arguments advanced in favor of changing the cotton schedule of the Dingley Act. The opposition had said that only ten per cent of the cotton importations would be affected by the proposed amendments but Dolliver quoted figures and authorities to show that seventy per cent would be involved. Aldrich had contended that "no business men except New York importers" opposed the bill, so Dolliver read a list of fifty-eight merchants from New York City who had signed and sent to Senator Root of New York a communication of protest against the bill.

The Aldrich argument that the alterations had not raised the duties was met by Dolliver with the testimony of authorities and by statistics from the Department of Treasury. The position that changes were necessary because court decisions had altered the original intent of the Dingley Bill was fallacious, said Dolliver, because manufacturers themselves did not believe it and because the Dingley Bill had never intended to collect a sixty per cent duty on some cotton goods. Furthermore, the inference that millions of dollars was paid back each year to importers by order of the courts were untrue. Figures from the Treasury Department showed the total amount paid back in all cases to be only $55,000.

A typical Dolliver contention was that a one cent added duty for mercerization was unjustifiable. Facts were produced to show that the cost of processing was not that great but Dolliver probably took greater delight in showing the illogical clause which provided that the duty would be applied even if only one thread of the imported material was mercerized.

On August 5 Dolliver seemed to have two fundamental purposes in mind. He carefully reviewed the more important arguments he had presented during the tariff debates and he devoted a great deal of time towards justifying his position in the minds of the public.

Four ideas that he had always maintained were reviewed. First, he said he had never attacked the protective tariff system. Second, the so-called "citadel of protection" was in reality a "reciprocity

[13] F. W. Taussig, *The Tariff of the United States* (1914), p. 362. David Saville Muzzey, *The United States of America* (1924), II, 485-86.

of benefits." Third, no changes should have been made in the cotton schedules of the Dingley Act. Fourth, unwarranted increases had been made in the schedules of wool and woolens.

In this final speech Dolliver was concerned with the attitude that the public would take towards his activities. He refused to repudiate his former opinions but drove home the argument that he believed there was room in the Republican party for every man's honest convictions and repeated that he was ready for judgment by the opinion of people everywhere.

> It will be a long time before a Republican Senator from Iowa will be read out of the Union or out of the Republican party by reason of a straightforward effort to reduce the rates on the clothing of the American people.[14]

The success of these arguments was necessary if Dolliver was to expect any political future. Immediate reaction in Iowa showed that they were accepted by the people, and historians generally agree that the speaker was accurate and sincere.[15]

B. Details of Proof

Argument from authority was Dolliver's most common method of proof. In the speech of June 5 every argument involved some use of authority which would meet the tests needed to make it acceptable. The speaker was familiar with the Special Devices of refutation and examples may be found of *Reductio ad Absurdum*. Turning the Tables, Adopting Opposing Arguments, Exposing Inconsistencies, and placing the opposition on the Horns of a Dilemma.

The speaker often destroyed the points of Aldrich and his supporters by producing additional evidence to show their facts inaccurate. Statistics were frequently quoted, coming usually from the Treasury Department. In the address of June 5 two analogies were presented.[16] These were not used to prove points but to clarify his arguments and perhaps to hold audience interest.

Use of Ethical Mode

There were two important reasons why Dolliver needed and used ethical proof extensively in these addresses. For the first time in his life he definitely broke away from his party's leaders and he was constantly called upon to justify his motives and inconsistency. Furthermore, to prove his points he had to show the dishonesty and trickery of hidden clauses in the textile schedules. This led to attacks upon the framers of the bill. More than once Dolliver's bitter invective and cutting ridicule drove Aldrich, the chief tariff supporter, from the floor of the senate. The following conversations are typical:

> Dolliver. I hope the Senator from Rhode Island will remain here for a few minutes.
>
> Aldrich. I am engaged elsewhere.
>
> Dolliver. I want to engage you here. . . .
>
> Aldrich. All right.
>
> Dolliver. . . . The Senator will not turn his back upon what I have to say here without taking the moral consequences which would naturally arise in the mind of a man anxious to get at the facts in this case.

Before closing his address of June 5,

[14] *Congressional Record*, August 5, 1909, p. 4925.

[15] La Follette, *op. cit.*, pp. 434-35.
Bowers, *op. cit.*, p. 338.
Ida M. Tarbell, *The Tariff in Our Times* (1911), p. 311.
Mark Sullivan, *Our Times* (1936), IV, 360.
Cyrenus Cole, *I Remember, I Remember* (1936), p. 325.
Erik McKinley Eriksson, "A Tribute of the People," *Palimpsest*, V (1924), 37-47.
One exception to the general belief in Dolliver's sincerity was James Watson, a contemporary of Dolliver in the Senate. Cf. James E. Watson, *As I Knew Them* (1936), pp. 139-40.

[16] *Congressional Record*, June 5, 1909, p. 2849:
Suppose there were three of us standing upon the street corner. I have had three square meals that day. You two have had nothing to eat. Some cheerful statistician connected with the Department of Commerce and Labor or the Finance Committee of the Senate comes up with a pencil and undertakes to prove that we have had an average of one meal apiece. That situation has no sense in it, and it has no sense in it when, to a man complaining about duties being raised, it is said, "Oh, no; that is the average of 1907."

Dolliver's attention was called for the third time to the fact that Aldrich was absent. His reply brought laughter from those present.

> I have intimated several times my desire to have the committee here, but I was doubtful whether they would stay from luncheon, and now I will say publicly I do not give two cents a square yard and five per cent cumulative ad valorem whether the committee is here or not. I intend to tell the truth here even in their absence.[17]

Meanwhile, Doliver vigorously defended his right to membership in the Republican party and skillfully gained support from the audience back home by defending the people of Iowa against some rather unimportant statements that had been made. He also constantly maintained his adherence to the protective tariff principle and on one occasion said, "It has grieved me more than anything in my public life that I have felt it my duty to protest against this unwarranted repeal of the Dingley cotton schedule."[18]

Use of Pathetic Mode

Doliver was well known for his wit and humor. In his address of May 4-5 he showed high ability with humor, primarily during interruptions from the floor. His second address, however, involved only four uses of humor compared with twenty in the first, and there was none at all when he spoke on August 5. This gradual elimination of humor in his addresses occurred simultaneously with a gradual increase in direct appeals to the other emotions of his listeners. His attacks upon Aldrich increased in fervor. At first, these consisted simply of evidence that condemned his opponents but gradually he resorted to attacks upon characters and motives without the use of specific proof. Throughout these three speeches he undoubtedly secured the greatest emotional response from his audiences through irony and bitter personal attacks.

His speeches characteristically ended with an emotional plea. On May 4-5 he recalled the memories of Hamilton, Benjamin Franklin, and Abraham Lincoln. On June 5 he used much the same type of conclusion, also to preserve the "true protective system." During the second occasion the memory of "old Governor Dingley" was involved. In his last address he identified himself as the defender of the rights of the people in order to arouse their resentment against the framers of the tariff.

Effectiveness of the Speeches

Contemporary writers and historians generally agree that these addresses stamp Dolliver as an outstanding speaker. The speeches were widely quoted by the newspapers and Dolliver gained in public respect and admiration. People believed the charges of the Progressives that the tariff legislation contained many injustices, and extreme advocates of protection found themselves on the defensive.[19]

The fight within the Republican ranks contributed to the growing division that came to a head in 1911 and 1912. President Taft realized the danger of the split within his party over the tariff question. On May 26, 1910, he wrote Theodore Roosevelt that

> La Follette, Cummins, Dolliver, Bristow, Clapp, and Beveridge, and I must add Borah, have done all in their power to defeat us. They have probably furnished ammunition enough to the press and to the public to make a Democratic House.[20]

Taft's letter was prophetic. Aldrich had the votes in Congress and was able to force through his new tariff bill, but

[17] *Congressional Record*, June 5, 1909, p. 2845 and p. 2850.

[18] *Congressional Record*, June 5, 1909, p. 2859.

[19] "The great mass of the people were convinced that Aldrich had obtained the legislation by trickery and that the desires of the voters in 1908 had been betrayed." Sullivan, *op. cit.*, pp. 369-70.

[20] Pringle, *op. cit.*, p. 532.

the Republican Insurgents had given ammunition to the press and the people. In the next election the House went Democratic. The Insurgents had helped, and Dolliver had been one of its most active and able spokesmen.

PUBLIC SPEAKING IN MISSOURI, 1820-1830

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FOUR years ago the writer had occasion to examine the files of Missouri newspapers for references to the public speaking done by Missourians during the decade 1820-1830. This investigation yielded numerous and varied signs of the speech activities among the Missourians of that period, and it is the intent of this article to present a picture of this speech activity during the 1820's as exemplified in the newspapers of the time.

Let us suppose that you and I were making our study of speech activity in Missouri, not in 1943, removed some one hundred and twenty years from the scene itself, but that instead we were actually a part of the scene. What would we find our fellow-citizens talking about? On what occasions would we be likely to encounter the orator? As we attended these functions what could we learn of the conduct and manner of our fellow-listeners?

First of all, we would find that the question of Missouri's entry into the Union of States in 1820-1821 had summoned and held the interest of the politically inclined speechmakers; an interest manifested in numerous rallies and discussions at which sins more serious than speechmaking were committed. With the question of statehood settled in the affirmative, some of us might have been among those early Missourians who met in convention, formed the constitution, and elected the delegates to the first General Assembly. Perhaps a few of us would have been present on September 19, 1820, when Governor McNair met both houses of the General Assembly and delivered an inaugural address in answer to the voice of his fellow-citizens, a voice which he was quick to acknowledge as having called him to his high office.

Among the other political gatherings we might have attended were the "large and respectable meeting of the citizens of the town of St. Louis at the Baptist Meeting House, for the purpose of instructing our representatives in the Legislature as to their manner of voting relative . . . the relief of the people," or one of the many citizens' meetings held throughout the state in the election years of 1824 and 1828. We would have read in our *Missouri Gazette*, an anti-Jackson paper, the following account of a Jackson for President meeting held in St. Louis in 1824.

> According to the fashion of the times, the Jacksonians called a meeting of the citizens of St. Louis on the 7th instant, to nominate suitable persons for the offices of president and vice-president, and to enlighten and influence the public mind in relation to the approaching contest. The Jacksonians, however, were disappointed in finding themselves outnumbered at the meeting. They were determined just the same to put on a bold front and face it out. During the time required in organizing the meeting, the intended orator of the day was busily arranging a pitcher of water, sundry newspapers, and other portentous preparations for a speech. This being observed had an electric effect. The merry countenances of those who came

for amusement suddenly fell, indicating their inclination to be worried; the men of business betrayed a restless impatience, which to anybody but the orator would have been a sufficient hint that the speech might have been disposed with; indeed the whole assembly (always excepting the two dozen Jacksonians) suffered the horrors of an anticipated bore. To their great relief a motion was made to adjourn. The orator rose, which being discovered—question, question, was reiterated on all sides—silence was restored and the question put. At length it was formally reported that there were 73 ayes and 59 noes, and the meeting adjourned. However, the Jacksonians remained, the meeting was reorganized, and the speech delivered as scheduled.

Very early in the period we would have concluded that at least with respect to frequency of utterance the oratory of the political man was significant in Missouri speechmaking.

Closely allied to the speeches which derived from the stump were the elaborate Independence Day celebrations held throughout the state. The festivities usually began with a parade which ended at the spot where the occasion was to be glorified. After the parade, twenty-four rounds were fired, the cloth was removed, an "elegant repast" was enjoyed, the Declaration of Independence was read, the orator of the day held forth, and the celebrants braced themselves for the many rounds of toast drinking that ended the day.

In habits of style the Fourth of July orators followed the Asiatic tradition. Joseph Gregg of Fayette began his oration in 1828 in this fashion.

> Friends and Fellow Citizens: Having thus premised, I will proceed to the subject of the day, which if you please I shall divide into three heads; First, the causes or origin of the anniversary we celebrate, secondly, the effects, and thirdly, what will in my opinion be conducive to the protection and continuation of these happy effects; and vice versa.

The previous year Samuel Moore had noted that the occasion was one celebrated from the "granite hills of Maine to the fertile vales of the Gulf of Mexico." In 1825 Ezer Ellis of St. Louis became so eloquent that nearby workers—perhaps with prophetic implications—ceased their labors and remained resting on their implements.

But all this is not to indicate that only political speaking was carried on throughout the period. We would also have seen our fellow-citizens beginning to organize into societies and groups with related interests; and the orators—apparently without undue urgings—took part in the programs of these organizations. On the anniversary of St. John the Evangelist, Mr. H. R. Gamble addressed a Masonic meeting in St. Louis in 1826. At times these Masonic meetings drew from eight hundred to a thousand people, or audiences representing approximately one per cent of the State's population. The farmers too had banded together, and as early as 1824 the members of the Agricultural Society of the County of St. Louis unanimously voted thanks to their President, William C. Carr, for "his able address" on the several branches of agriculture and rural economy. In 1828 the Hibernian Relief Society celebrated its first anniversary, and on this festive occasion Mr. P. Quigley addressed the chair in "neat and appropriate language." Following the speech the amazing number of fifty-six toasts was drunk, and it is apparent that this vocalized drinking was an established form of speech activity. It would seem that no organization was without its speech occasions and numerous other groups could be included among those not averse to entertaining the thoughts of the orator.

Even more plentiful were the religious speeches of this frontier state. One is handicapped, however, in searching for information on this kind of speaking by the paucity of the data appearing in the news columns. The rather stereotyped

news reports followed this general pattern: "The Rev. Joshua Bradley will preach in the Baptist Church next Lord's Day at eleven o'clock on the Duty of Religiously Observing the Christian Sabbath." Yet such notices were frequently reported, and from what we are able to learn the sermons were delivered in the traditional "Hell fire and damnation" style. *The Missouri Intelligencer and Boon's Lick Advertiser* of November 20, 1829 carried the following account of a local religious camp meeting:

> At sunrise the trumpet calls the people to prayers. After breakfast is over preaching at the stand commences. It is usual to follow each sermon with a warm exhortation. Mourners, or in New England phraseology, "inquirers" are invited to come forward to be prayed for. Those who have been converted under the preachings and exhortations usually present themselves in front of the stand and kneel. Prayer is made for them, which with much singing, exhortations, etc., prolong the exercises for some time.

Occasionally members of the clergy became involved in political disputes. A report was circulated in St. Louis that both the Reverend Mr. Peck and the Reverend Mr. Welch had engaged in political preaching; a report to which the Reverend Mr. Peck felt constrained to reply that he had "too much regard for the cause of religion, the interests of my country, and my public and private reputation, to preach on slavery or any other subject of party politics."

About midway in the period occasional reports of theatrical activity began to appear in the St. Louis newspapers. For example,

> This evening January 3rd, When will be presented Shakespear's celebrated tragedy of *Richard the Third*. After which will be added the farce of the *Day After the Wedding*, or a *Wife's First Lesson*.

and

> On Wednesday evening, July 30, will be presented for the first time in St. Louis the highly interesting *Melo Drama of the Forest of Rosenwald*, or the *Travellers Benighted*. Previous to which, first time here, the popular comedy, called *Simpson and Co.* At the end of the comedy, a comic song, by Mr. S. Smith called the Great Booby.

As early as 1822 a Thespian Society had been formed in St. Louis, and concerning one of the earlier performances of this local group, the St. Louis *Republican* noted that the young gentlemen of the place did credit to themselves, and "afforded a rational amusement to the audience."

Besides the speech categories already mentioned, other activities in the general area of speech are worthy of mention. We know, for example, that a Mr. A. Yates of New York established an institution in St. Louis for the correction of speech impediments and advertised that all stammerers could "be cured and the most obstinate be enabled to speak with comparative ease and fluency in a few weeks, and many in a few days." We know that John Thaw and Elijah P. Lovejoy proposed to open a school in 1828 where rhetoric was taught and where alternate weekly exercises in composition and declamation were to be required of the more advanced students. We know that Chief Shun-kai-ki-ke-ga of the Grand Pawnees delivered a speech to Major Benjamin O'Fallon, Agent for Indian Affairs, on the subject of the Pawnee groups plundering and insulting some Americans on the Arkansas River. We know that a welcoming speech was delivered by the Mayor of St. Louis to General Lafayette on the occasion of his visit to that city in 1825—a speech not reported since the crowd prevented the reporters from getting "near enough to hear more than a word or two. . . ." We know that short after-dinner speeches in the form of the inevitable toasts terminated a banquet given in 1821 at the Franklin Hotel by the citizens of Frank-

lin and vicinity. We know that Joshua Barton appeared before the Circuit Court of Howard County to argue the constitutionality of the act establishing the state loan offices. All of these are, of course, not given as isolated examples, but as carefully searched out and typical instances of the speech situations in which the early Missourian participated.

Indeed a kind of speech criticism had begun to appear in the weekly papers of the State. The *Missouri Republican* in 1822 reported it to be a "great misfortune not to have sense enough to speak well or judgment enough to speak little." In 1824 it was suggested in the columns of the same paper that "Those orators who give us much noise and many words, but little argument, and less wit; and who are most loud when they are least lucid, should take a lesson from the great volume of nature; she often gives us lightning without the thunder, but never thunder without the lightning." And later the *Republican* reported that "In Greece, an orator was praised for speaking well. . . . In America, for speaking a long time. The Governor," lamented the paper, "spoke for two hours—the Attorney-General spoke two hours and a half."

But having indicated that the Missourians of the 1820's were interested in both public affairs and public discussion, and having recounted political, religious, judicial, and ceremonial occasions which called for speechmaking, it would be well to follow the advice of these early Missouri newspapers on the virtues of brevity and bring this report to a close.

THE VANISHING COLLEGE ORATOR?

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DURING the last ten years collegiate forensics have been in a state of flux. Changing conditions have introduced new areas of activity and conventional activities have experienced constant revision. In this process many persons have questioned whether collegiate oratory is justified in the present forensic program. Before answering, we ought to examine the aim of forensics in general rather than take an atomistic view toward any one activity.

It is not necessary to restate the numerous arguments regarding the vices, real and alleged, that have been attributed to speech contests at all levels. You have read the articles, you have heard the arguments, you have had your say, and probably by this time have chosen sides. We recognize that there are sincere individuals and potent arguments on each side. But we also recall that forensic contests and their attendant problems have been popular whipping boys since the time of the Greeks. Just now, in addition to the educational and philosophical problems, come the very real factors of student unrest, restricted budgets, and even more restricted automobile travel. Many colleges are faced with the necessity of immediate decisions that are sure to have far-reaching implications. If these choices are to be made in the light of contemporary educational theory and practice, we ought to recognize at least the following four factors as characteristic of a good forensic program:

1. It should exist for the student, and should be so balanced as to offer opportunity and appeal for all potential par-

ticipants. Its success must be measured in terms of the growth it produces in the participants. When it fails to train students adequately in every important aspect of practical speech its possibilities are limited.

2. It should be functional in nature, for today we recognize the increasing emphasis on correlation between education and life situations.
3. Whether competitive or noncompetitive, it should offer a high degree of motivation, so as to challenge the student to his best efforts.
4. Lastly, it should embody those projects and situations that require the student to synthesize materials and ideas drawn from a variety of sources.[1]

How, then, do oratorical activities fit into this pattern? One of the unique functions of college oratory is that it offers almost the only, if not the only, extraclass opportunity for students to express themselves on subjects that affect their welfare, thoughts, and feelings. In many instances it is the stimulus that makes them sensitive to social problems that ought to challenge their thinking and dominate their efforts. I am well acquainted with the argument that many collegiate orators have not thought deeply, or that they are not concerned with issues of importance. If such be the case, the apathy certainly is not due to their having an opportunity to speak, and limiting or discouraging them from speaking would hardly be a technique for overcoming their lethargy. If those who do speak choose subjects at times that we consider to be immature, ill-considered, and improper—remember that one of the valid criticisms against higher education is that it encourages students to pass back what the professor gives them. They are seldom stimulated to do their own thinking. Their minds become warehouses rather than factories. If some college orations are poor, it is a reflection of the state of higher education rather than a mere indictment of college oratory.

Furthermore, I find it difficult to believe that the general level of collegiate oratory is as low as some would claim. Within the last six months I have read one hundred orations written by students from twenty-nine different schools, and this examination seems definitely to indicate that contest orators do talk about significant problems, do show evidence of mature thinking, and—when placed alongside Sunday morning sermons, chapel speeches, and current political oratory—these orations seem brilliant by comparison. Including war, race, religion, housing, narcotics, and salacious literature, the subjects were vital. In these one hundred orations the balance between the motive and intellectual appeal varied from good to poor, but never did it approach the level of some contemporary witch hunting, nor did it promise economic salvation in return for votes.

We must expect that, in the process of learning, not all students will adequately study the problems they discuss; and that many will fail to support their opinions, often based on emotional attitudes, with substantial evidence and adequate logic. But do political aspirants, members of the bar, the clergy, or spokesmen for capital or labor always do these things? At least we should criticize the individual failure without indicting the system. In the contemporary college, oratory stands as a unique avenue of self-expression. In the oration the student does his original thinking—if he does any at all. Furthermore, collegiate oratory provides one of the nearest approaches that exists in the whole forensic program to the truly subject-audience motivated speech situation. We are well aware that small audiences often fail to challenge speakers, that this lack of challenge often results in poorly prepared and delivered speeches, and

[1] An article by H. L. Ewbank, "Speech Contests as Educational Techniques," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXII (1936), 187-196, presents a more complete discussion of these ideas.

that these in turn attract even smaller audiences. It is a vicious cycle.

But the potentialities are there if we can exploit them, and many schools do exploit them. Certainly the place to start is with the speaker and the speech. This does not mean abandoning oratory. It simply means improving and modifying its practice. That quality can be achieved is indicated by the enviable records of a small number of schools that regularly produce superior college orators. Such achievement is not based on intimidation, bribery and coercion, but rather upon the solid foundation of discovery and stimulation of student self-expression, competent direction, and hard work directed toward high standards. As one of these forensic directors wrote in a well-known textbook, "No one has yet discovered a substitute for earning the right to speak. . . ." When asked the secret of his institution's success in oratory, a former student gave the answer in these inelegant but pungent words, "Work like hell."

The student who prepares an oration on any vital, provocative topic has a better opportunity for truly profitable speaking experience than in almost any other field of forensics. Debaters and extempore speakers may find a reasonable number of real-life audiences, but most of their appearances will be in contest speaking. This certainly need not be true of the student with a sound oration on a lively topic of the hour, for there are a tremendous number of modern American organizations seeking effective but inexpensive speakers to appear on their weekly programs. At least one college of which I know finds from ten to forty such opportunities for its college orators each year. As a rule these audiences do not even know that the speaker is an "orator" or that the student has ever given the speech in a contest, for the forensic director prefers that his students be known as "speakers" rather than "orators."

Granting the value of discussion, debate, and extempore speaking as a part of the forensic program, I feel that in no sense do they fill the place of oratory. The orator selects his own subject, one that is of vital concern to his audience—one that deals with their wants, welfare, fears, or aspirations. He tackles a real problem and attempts to throw light on it. The elements are subject, audience, speaker. The synthesis is deliberate, considered, careful. The objective is to move the particular audience by the most effective, ethical means possible—to stimulate their thinking, to crystallize their opinions, to strengthen their determination. In each of the other forensic activities, the premium is upon exactly the opposite type of procedure, immediate adaptation, choice of words on the spot, the ability to adjust and extemporize fluently. To hope that such are the only activities by which we may develop a higher excellence in speech, is to hope for too much. While these two techniques correlate, they are still separate and discernable, and the methods of achievement can and should follow different paths.

This brings us to possibly the most important function of extracurricular work in oratory, namely its contribution to training in speech composition. As is perfectly right and proper, our fundamentals and public speaking courses emphasize extemporaneous speech. Likewise, in our forensic programs there is no other activity that places particular emphasis on the careful selection of factual evidence and motive appeal, *and* the considered welding of this into a final, well-worded persuasive product. In the oration is the opportunity to weigh and consider, to strike out, to rephrase, to polish, to balance, to build, to digest. As radio speaking grows in importance, we are becom-

ing more aware of the limitations of the extempore technique—and of the need for people who can write an oral style, and then read it with spontaneity and conviction. The radio is asking for writers and speakers who have had sound training in speech composition. Collegiate oratory can make a contribution to just that type of training.

Also, I believe we must recognize that we are living in a period when the pressure for self-expression is becoming increasingly great, while restrictions on free expression are likely to be sharply increased. As this war directly affects individuals, families, colleges, and great areas of population, more and more people are finding it necessary to express themselves effectively. Machinery has been set up to build and sustain public morale and in this effort speakers are an essential factor. Some colleges have shifted their forensic programs so as to place almost exclusive emphasis on war information and public morale. The amount of talk will assuredly increase. It is vitally important, therefore, that the amount of ill-considered charge, counter charge, and assertion be definitely reduced. Personally I can think of no greater mistake that colleges, as educational institutions, could make than to allow this field to be entirely dominated by untrained, poorly prepared, and possibly irresponsible speakers. There is plenty to be said. Our business is to see that it is said fairly, honestly, and effectively. If democracy really works, responsible expression is going to be one of the things that makes it work. To curtail at this time any type of activity that emphasizes the individual speaker and trains him in the basic principles of speech composition, would certainly be a disservice to all concerned. We may change the form of oratorical contests, but in so far as oratory is a fair and honest appeal to people for action, it deserves a place in college forensics.

PLAN AND COUNTER-PLAN IN A QUESTION OF POLICY

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HOW much of a detailed "plan in action" must an affirmative debate team present?

When judging debates I have often been troubled by this problem. Especially was it true recently when we were discussing the need of a permanent union for the nations of the Western Hemisphere. The affirmative would show the evil that existed, then suggest that the plan would work and had benefits. All the time I kept asking: "What plan?" If an affirmative team refuse to tell how a union is to be formed; if they give not the slightest hint as to its method of procedure; if the best they can do is to utter the magic word "union"; how are they justified in saying that the plan (which has not been mentioned) is practicable and will result in benefits? Again I ask: "How much of a detailed plan must the affirmative present?"

This question has caused confusion among debaters, for several reasons. A ten-minute time limit does not allow for extensive detail. Also, propositions vary from year to year; the emphasis necessary to prove this year's question might be quite misplaced with the one for next year. The forensic directors vary in their interpretation of basic theory. Take so vital a factor as the ultimate purpose of

debate training. Is it primarily to persuade an audience, to search for truth, to indicate skill in debate, to solve a problem, or is it all of them combined? If the student is led to believe that skill in debate (with another scalp for the Old Alma Mater) is of much greater importance than the solving of a problem, then, for so-called strategic reasons, he may try to evade a discussion of the plan or its practical application.

Perhaps some of the confusion may be eliminated if we make a careful distinction in the use of terms. Often corporations hire a man whose sole duty is to formulate the policies of the company. A policy is a broad, generalized statement of a course of action; it gives no indication as to how the policy will be carried out. Somewhere else in the corporation is a planning board whose duty is to make practical application of these policies. Here we have a cleancut distinction between a policy and a plan of action. Obviously the policy may be good or bad; likewise the plan of action may be good or bad. An unsound policy does not become sound because of an effective method of putting it into practice; nor does a sound policy get the best results with a faulty plan of action. In business, as in debate, we need a policy that is *sound in theory* as well as a plan that will be *successful in practice*.

In some debates the negative can make their strongest attack by striking at the principle. Not long ago we were discussing the question: "Resolved, that the United States give aid to Britain even at the risk of war." People were not primarily concerned with *how* that aid was to be given, but *whether* it was to be given. If the principle was sound, the application of the principle would raise no insuperable difficulties. A later debate question, however, reads: "Resolved, that the democracies should form a federation to establish and maintain the eight Churchill-Roosevelt principles." The average citizen believes in the Federal form of government; he has seen it in action; he knows that our nation has grown in strength and stability for the past one hundred and fifty years as a result of it. Therefore, to him the principle is theoretically sound. But when we try to form the democracies of the world into a federation we are in practical difficulty at once. The *how* now becomes of paramount importance.

We may conclude, then, that in some debates the entire discussion will center around the principle, the philosophy involved. If the foundation stones crumble, why bother with the superstructure?

Where both teams agree that the policy is sound in principle, they still have the problem of its application in practice. Careless thinking at this point is the cause of much of our confusion. Just what are the logical steps involved in building an affirmative case? 1) An evil exists (or threatens). 2) This policy (a statement of the proposition) suggests the most effective remedy. 3) Here is how it will be worked out, its basic principles, its essential mechanisms. 4) Here is how it will remedy the present evils. 5) Here are the benefits that will result. All too frequently an affirmative team leaves out the third step and tries to make the omission less obvious by talking of the merits of the plan. By what logic can they say that a plan is "practical," when they have failed to suggest its basic principles? Often the very desirability of a plan will be determined by its structure and method of procedure.

In order to find out what others thought concerning the need of a plan I sent out a questionnaire. One of the questions read: "In general, how much of a detailed 'plan in action' should the affirmative present?" (Remember that we are dealing with the second half of our problem, where the teams agree that the

policy is sound in principle.) Here are some of the answers:[1]

"I think the affirmative is obligated to present a plan sufficiently detailed to demonstrate the plan's workability. I do not conceive that the affirmative must cover every minute detail in such a plan but I think they are under obligation to give the main outlines so that the negative team and the audience may have a chance to judge of its practicability. I realize that the answer to this question might vary considerably with different debate propositions. Perhaps in some propositions the detailed plan is not necessary at all. But in any event, if the negative demands a plan, I think the affirmative must supply it." *R. K. Immel, University of Southern California.*

"The essentials of the plan should be presented by the affirmative. That is, enough of the plan should be in evidence to guarantee that the essential mechanisms are present." *A. T. Weaver, University of Wisconsin.*

"The affirmative should present as much 'plan in action' as time permits. A responsible judge will take account of the time limitation and will judge according to the character of the negative attack made upon such a plan." *A. Craig Baird, University of Iowa.*

"This is a good question—and a debatable one. But from the point of view of logical force to some extent and of persuasive force to a considerable degree it is good practice for an affirmative to *suggest* a 'plan of action.' The affirmative is not required logically to set out a plan of action in detail. It meets its obligations when it sets out enough of the main details of a plan to *raise a presumption* that the plan will work. The affirmative does *not* have to prove *conclusively* that it will work, not unless the negative challenges the plan with the evidence that may overcome the presumption. If the negative does so, the affirmative must go further and defend its plan in detail." *Lew Sarett, Northwestern University.*

"The affirmative should present a plan sufficiently detailed to give reasonable evidence that the proposal would, if adopted, be feasible—workable." *P. L. Soper, University of Tennessee.*

"The answer here depends somewhat upon the proposal. If a satisfactory execution of the affirmative proposition is doubtful, a more detailed plan will be in order. Thus to urge the adoption of national prohibition would require a more elaborate plan than would Federal charters for interstate corporations. In the latter instance, where the project could obviously be executed, the affirmative might simply advocate the principle. With the foregoing considerations in mind, I should say that in general the affirmative need only present the broad outlines or conspicuous features of the plan." *Alan Nichols, University of Southern California.*

"With some questions, the principle is more important, and the assumption is more or less made that 'where there's a will there's a way.' With other questions, the principle may be agreed upon by both sides and the debate will be entirely upon plan, or method. The amount of detail furnished by the affirmative must depend upon the emphasis of the question." *Hoyt H. Hudson, Princeton University.*

These answers reflect the convergent trend of opinion.

So far we have considered chiefly the *need* and *nature* of a "plan." But a plan that is not "practicable" would have little value, so we are led on inevitably to a consideration of this word. I find some debaters bandying it about with little regard to the meaning implied. In general what must a debater prove before he is justified in saying that his plan is practicable?

"A reasonable presumption that the principles of the plan can be worked out." *W. Norwood Brigance, Wabash College.*

"The affirmative must show that the basic principles of their plan have been successful in one form or another in previous situations. The achievement of a future is based upon some aspect of the past and present. To disregard the organic relationship of the past and present to the future is, indeed, indulging in debates of Utopia as suggested in your request for a statement." *Frances E. Jones, Ohio State University.*

"*Probability* that it would work; as shown by its working in some other country or period than the one under discussion, or by the working of an analogous plan in some other field of action; or by the general laws

[1] I wish to thank all of those who filled out and returned the questionnaire. I regret that space will not permit all of the answers to be given.

of human nature and by observation from experience and history." *H. H. Hudson, Princeton University.*

"The affirmative must prove that its plan does not contain defects that would render the plan unworkable, or that would cause evils as bad or worse than those for which the remedy is sought. The plan should not violate the fundamental principles of economics, political science, or human nature. Generally speaking, it should not challenge too seriously what is generally considered to be fundamental to the accepted way of life." *A. S. Pond, Brigham Young University.*

"As a matter of persuasion, they would do well to show that their plan is in accord with already accepted policies, methods, plans, practices, and tendencies." *F. M. Rarig, University of Minnesota.*

"A practical plan is one which can be put into operation by those charged with that responsibility and one which will provide for the essential elements necessary to keep it in operation. The results obtained do not affect practicability." *Herold T. Ross, DePauw University.*

"1. That the institution proposed can be brought into existence, that sentiment exists or can be created for its adoption.

"2. That the underlying principles of the institution, according to the consensus of recognized authorities in the field, is sound.

"3. That other institutions based upon the same principles have worked successfully." *W. Roy Diem, Ohio Wesleyan University.*

"Practicality, in a proposition of policy, involves these subissues:

"1. Will the affirmative proposal remove the evils and satisfy the need demonstrated?

"2. If adopted, will the affirmative proposal bring advantages, including the removal of the evils demonstrated, greater than the disadvantages resulting from abandoning the present or a similar policy and placing the affirmative proposal in operation." *George V. Bohman, Dartmouth College.*

"They must establish a reasonable assumption that there exists one or more ways of putting the proposal into operation. If pressed, either by authorities or detail, they must present sufficient reasoning or evidence to show that the proposal is not only possible but may be put into operation in such a way that the disadvantages will not outweigh the advantages. Any claim by the negative that a certain essential of the proposal cannot be accomplished because there is no known way of bringing it about calls for an answer from the affirmative which presents a tried method or a new method with a plausible likelihood of success; otherwise the affirmative have no right to claim that particular essential will produce the desired results expected. There is no use in claiming that airplanes with ten inch guns can win a battle till one shows that they can be carried." *Brooks Quimby, Bates College.*

"The affirmative should show that the action proposed is one that the appropriate authorities can successfully administer—that intelligent men could make it a go; that the reform would produce the desired results and not too many undesired ones. To show that a plan could be successfully administered does not require showing that it could be adopted, but that administrators would find in the basic law an intelligible guide to their actions, and not a vague grant of unlimited discretion." *H. A. Wichelns, Cornell University.*

These quotations reflect the opinion of the group. Although some go further than others approximately all of them contain the same minimum essentials.

Now we come to the last factor of our study, the counter-plan. If the public is asked to make a change, it might as well have the best solution of the problem.

Just when, technically speaking, do we have an alternate plan? The members of the affirmative will do well to study this point, for what has often masqueraded under this term has proved to be merely a modification of the affirmative proposal. A counter-plan must involve a *change of principle* from that of the proposition. No change of principle, no counter-plan. Let us take an illustration. A group of farmers gather to talk over the building of a one-room school for their district. Someone suggests as an alternate plan that they have a two-room building. Although the size has been enlarged, practically every other fact remains the same. But now someone says: "I think our best plan is to buy a bus and take our children to the city school," and another suggests: "Let's get the four

townships here to combine and build a consolidated school." Neither of these latter suggestions can be classed as merely a modification of the original suggestion and are therefore properly called counter-plans.

Only one fighting issue remains when an alternate plan is proposed. Both sides have conceded that an evil exists. The discussion must necessarily center around the relative merits of the two plans. The negative are under obligation to show the fundamental principles and essential mechanisms of their plan just as truly as are the affirmative. Having conceded the issue of "need" they must be sure that they can show the superiority of their plan. Much of the negative case can be built around these five ideas:

1. Specifically, what are the limitations of the affirmative plan?
2. Specifically, what is the nature of the negative plan?
3. How is it more workable than the affirmative plan?
4. Why is it more desirable than the affirmative plan?
5. How will it create fewer or less serious evils than the affirmative plan?

From the foregoing facts we may draw these conclusions: A debate proposition is a broad general statement of a remedy for some existing evil. The negative may challenge the opposition as to the theoretical soundness of their proposal. If the policy is not sound in theory, either from the standpoint of economics or politics or military science, as the case may be, the negative have halted the debate at this point and there is no need of elaborating a plan. However, if both sides admit that the affirmative policy is theoretically sound, then a plan is in order. Immel remarks that the listeners are concerned with one single question: "Would we gain more than we would lose, or would we lose more than we would gain by adopting the affirmative plan?" Obviously no person can answer that question until he knows something of the structure and working of the plan. Under the conditions stated above, the affirmative are compelled by logic to offer a plan.

Another assumption in debate is that the remedy offered in the proposition is the best solution of the evil. To this the negative do not have to agree. Sometimes a counter-plan is their best means of attack. They in turn must show the structure and workings of their plan with as great (or even greater) care than do the affirmative. Having staked their entire case on this single issue they must show the superiority of their plan to that of the affirmative or lose the debate.

WHY STUDY DRAMATICS? AN ADDRESS TO STUDENTS BY DIRECTORS AND TEACHERS

JOHANN REICH

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IF YOU are a girl you should not study dramatic art because you have shapely legs and want to show them. If you are a boy you should not study dramatics because you want to show off on the stage for your girl. . . . Of course, good looks always count on the stage and the screen, but the golden age when appearance was enough passed with the silent pictures. Today, appearance is just one of perhaps twenty-five things that a commercial actor needs to make good in the profession, and that a college or community actor needs to succeed in his locality. As long as there is a theatre, good luck—just plain chance—will play a part at least as important as good looks. But you cannot sit back and wait for luck.

No one should study dramatics because he is sure he can do better than Spencer Tracy, Paul Muni, Helen Hayes and Bette Davis combined. The more one knows, the more he has accomplished, the more modest he is likely to be. The most talented artist when he sets out to prepare himself for his art does not know where he will end. Part of the attraction that the stage has always had for young people is based on the uncertain, unstable factors in the artist's career. But too few students appreciate the importance of these factors and are willing to work hard enough to assure themselves of the benefits of the controllable factors in their career.

Now if we do not study dramatics as exhibitionists and to be applauded, highly paid stars, why do we study dramatics? Certainly not because we do not know in which field to specialize and because we believe dramatic art might be easier and more fun than a purely academic curriculum! So again, why study dramatics? What enrichment do we gain?

The theatre arts enrich us physically, psychologically, and socially. Dramatic art, if taught and learned the right and difficult way, has a vast influence on our bodies, our souls, and our relations to other people. For inside and outside of every profession, job, or trade the body, the soul and relationships to other people determine what is made of our days.

Dancing and fencing will be taught in every good course in the drama. The student will be encouraged to take up all sports that guarantee an even development of his muscles. Acting means living for two hours another person's life; it removes self consciousness—a psychological disease that paralyzes, not just acting, but every kind of work. Before the performance one learns to stand up in the spotlight of rehearsal with the director diagnosing and remedying shortcomings in emotion, speech, and movement. The stage does to an individual what the sunlight streaming through the windows of an otherwise dark church does to the dust particles: it makes clearly visible what is normally unperceivable: the slightest mistake, every inappropriate gesture shows up, perhaps along with a hidden charm and precious subconscious material that the actor himself has not been aware of. Through the medium of the theatre as well as the camera the spectator sees a person more sharply, as if enlarged through the merciless microscope. If the body has been trained for the stage it will appear infinitely more graceful in ordinary life. And all know how vital a well-trained body is, in private life as well as in business. Studying and prac-

tising dramatic art develop the expressiveness of the body.

More important, dramatic art develops the emotional life as well as the physical. The art of acting has come of age. No longer does it mean superficial and mechanical imitation of the director's voice and gestures, but now it can and must be taught as a psychological re-creation of emotional patterns. While the old-style dramatic coach worked from the outside toward the inside, toward the soul of a character, the director now tries to create the soul first and lets the outside take shape naturally, much as the emotional life reflects itself in voice and movement. The three great factors that the modern instructor in dramatic art endeavors to develop in his students are imagination, concentration, and observation. This three-sided basis of modern acting must be constantly practised. Imagination and concentration are found in every small child, and observation in every intelligent youngster. The student of dramatic art develops these gifts of nature.

This fact explains why children are normally better actors than adults; and superior artists are usually those who are capable of experiencing the natural emotions of childhood. Between the ages of five and ten the imagination seems to be at its peak. At college age much of one's instinctive insight has been lost. Only hard work will regain it. Older children will show a natural interest in other people. That will lead them to observation, the third column on which rests the temple of acting as of every art. How could an artist paint a picture without observation? How could an actor play a dying man without observation? Neither artist can, by imagination alone, produce an image that includes all objective traits necessary to convince the audience of the truthfulness of his artistic product.

Developing imagination, concentration, and observation should not be the objective of the drama teacher only. Without this distinguished trinity no one can act or paint, nor can he achieve much in any profession. It was imagination that made Carnegie see the future of the railroads when everybody believed that the human body could not withstand a speed higher than twenty-five miles. It was shrewd observation of his partners, his competitors, and his public that made Rockefeller say: "I have never been disappointed in any one of my employees or in the reaction of my customers." He had observed and studied his employees thoroughly before hiring them, and the public before selling to them. Yet you would not call Rockefeller an actor.

Most of all, the dramatic arts develop the individual socially. We have come to recognize that probably the most revealing way to study an individual is to observe his relationship with other people. When an actor has been assigned a part the first thing he is taught is not to memorize his lines dully but to realize the supposed situation he is in and to crystallize his emotional relationship toward every other character in the play. Even before he knows his lines, the actor must know which of his partners he is supposed to hate and who hates him, which to love and who loves him. He must know who is indifferent to him, and of whom he is jealous. Such knowledge will do more toward establishing him in the play and stimulating his creative ability than long theoretical explanations by the director. For his imagination as well as for finding the key to the character's social relations, the actor uses the concept of "if" that stands at the beginning of true dramatic art. He asks himself how he would feel "if" he were in the place of the character, with that character's past experiences and disposition. If anyone, not only an actor, has learned to use "if" as a lever that lifts him from the world of reality unto the world of imagination,

or as a span that bridges the gap between his own self and his role, he will have gone a long way towards establishing on stage the illusion of nature and in life the reality of success. If he has by extentive practise learned to put himself in somebody else's place he will know what to tell a prospective employer because he would know what to ask a prospective employee—were he the employer. If he has learned to put himself in another person's situation he shall know how to win the girl he loves, for he shall have a notion of what he would want if he were in her place.

In addition to imagination, concentration, and observation, the stage teaches self-control, the importance of small jobs, and the interdependence of those holding big and small jobs. An actor constantly practises self-control, for he can succeed only if he is master of his emotions, if, at a moment's notice, he can produce them and suppress them. How many people have failed in their lives because they were slaves, not masters, of their emotions! Self-control builds character, shapes distinct personalities, raises one out of the crowd of those who remain subject to their urges and instincts. Dramatic art teaches the importance of small jobs: The man who draws the curtain can ruin the greatest performance. The stage teaches an interdependence that results in team spirit. Baseball and football do the same thing, and nobody doubts that these games are of great educational value. Yet the football player's responsibility and interdependence are concerned mainly with a physical performance. Dramatic art requires all this and more: an easy command of a whole scale of thoughts and emotions; of memory, voice, facial expression. So the stage, while developing all the discipline and team spirit of the sports, develops emotional and spiritual qualities along with the physical ones. Therefore, by studying and practising dramatic art the student prepares himself to be successful, not only in the theatre, but in other fields. He also becomes a truly democratic citizen who respects everyone's opinion because he is able to put himself into the other person's position. As long as men and women practise what dramatic art has taught them they will realize that any performance on the stage or in life succeeds in proportion to the team spirit of its actors.

JAMES RUSH, DRAMATIST

GILES WILKESON GRAY, *Louisiana State University*

AND

LESTER L. HALE, *University of Florida*

AMONG most teachers of speech mention of the name of James Rush immediately calls to mind his *Philosophy of the Human Voice,* which, first published in 1827, ran through six editions during the lifetime of the author, and a seventh ten years after his death in 1869. Although for more than a hundred years after its first appearance this epochal work was to exert a strong influence on the theories of speech and its teaching, today relatively few teachers have a first-hand knowledge of what was in it; while the story of how it came to be written at all was until recently quite unknown.[1]

[1] Lester L. Hale, "A Re-Evaluation of James Rush's Vocal Philosophy Based on a Study of His Sources." Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Louisiana State University, June, 1942.

Equally unknown is the fact that his labors, extending over a period of more than fifty years, followed a rather definite design, in which the *Philosophy* itself was only one phase.

Among his other writings was an *Analysis of the Human Intellect*,[2] the writing of which was begun in 1818 and completed in 1865.[3] Still another, of an entirely different nature, yet fitting into the whole pattern, was his one venture into the field of dramatic composition. It was in 1834, sixteen years after conceiving his study into the human mind, and seven years after the initial appearance of his *Philosophy*, that he published his sole drama, entitled *Hamlet, a Dramatic Prelude in Five Acts*.[4] What was this "design," and how does the writing of his *Hamlet* fit into it?

James Rush was a physician, and there is ample evidence that he was a very busy and capable one. His father, Benjamin Rush, one of the most famous physicians of the Revolutionary War period, was one of the four doctors to sign the Declaration of Independence. As a result of James's rearing in a medical atmosphere, together with his specific medical training (he received his M.D. degree in 1809), everything he looked at he saw with the eyes of a physician. He was never to escape his background; nor is there any indication that he ever tried to break away from it.

Soon after receiving his medical degree, Rush went to Europe for further study and broadening. Entering the University of Edinburgh, he registered for a course in "Moral Philosophy" under the famous Scottish philosopher, Dugald Stewart. Unfortunately, because of a recent bereavement in the family added to his own ill health, Stewart himself gave only the opening lecture, leaving his colleague, a Dr. Brown, to continue the course. This lecture, however, being "on the philosophical character of Lord Bacon,"[5] aroused Rush's interest and curiosity, and the following year in London he purchased Bacon's works. His study of these writings was to influence the entire course of his life.

As a result of his studies in Edinburgh, he became interested in the functioning of the human mind; but under the influence of Bacon, the theorizing of metaphysics no longer satisfied him. Even the philosophy of Dugald Stewart itself seemed deficient in that it relied almost entirely on authority rather than on the observation of "nature."[6] From now henceforth, *observation* was to be the keynote in Rush's labors.

In 1811 he returned from Europe and for a time lectured to his father's classes on the mind in medicine. It was during this period that he conceived the plan for a thorough analysis of the human mind, to be based, not on metaphysical speculation, but upon the observation of the realities of nature. His *Analysis of the Human Intellect* is one of the first books on psychology published in America.

But Rush was first and foremost a physician. Throughout all his labors, his writings and his investigations, he maintained an extensive practise in his native city of Philadelphia. His studies led him not only into his analysis of the mind and of the voice as an expression of that mind; he went deeply into the theory and practice of medicine itself, projecting and even outlining, as early as 1813, a medi-

[2] James Rush, *Brief Outline of an Analysis of the Human Intellect* (Philadelphia, 1865, J. B. Lippincott & Co.), 2 Vols.

[3] The dates given here are likely to be misleading. Rush was not working on his *Analysis* during this entire time. He made copious notes during the period from 1818 to 1823. He then laid them aside and did not look at them again for thirty-four years. When he was seventy years old (1856, soon after publishing the fourth edition of his *Philosophy* in 1855) he took them up again and pushed the writing to completion. He was in his eightieth year when the *Analysis* was published.

[4] James Rush, *Hamlet, a Dramatic Prelude in Five Acts* (Philadelphia, 1834. Key and Biddle).

[5] *Human Intellect*, II, 435.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 439.

cal treatise. This work was to be called *Novus Ordo Medicinae;* it was to be offered "as a system founded only on observation," which he hoped would provide a "temporary, if not a permanent substitute, for those fashionable and quarrelsome theories which have always governed the art."[7]

Rush was profoundly disturbed by the existing state of medical knowledge. He felt that it was founded as much on fancy as on fact. "It seems," he complains, "to be one of the rules of faith in our art, that every truth must be helped into belief by some persuasive fiction of the school." "As far as I know," he continues, "the medical profession can scarcely produce a single volume in its practical department, from the works of Hippocrates down to the last made text-book, which, by the requisitions of an exact philosophy, will not be found to contain nearly as much fiction as truth."[8]

Even more distressing was the fact that the physicians of the day seemed to him to be wholly indifferent as to whether they possessed the facts or not. Many aspects of medical practise, apparently, were not susceptible of the observational method; speculation and fancy were all that was left. Among these aspects of human behavior which he had been told did not lend themselves to observation and analysis was vocal expression. Whereupon Rush proceeded, in his *Philosophy of the Human Voice,* to demonstrate that the voice could be described in detail through scientific observation. On the final pages of the first edition of his *Philosophy* he wrote,

> . . . I have too impatient a perception of the wasted experience, and profitless logic, which daily present themselves in the changeful errors of my profession,—not to desire to use in its service, a method of philosophy which I hope will be found to have been effectual here.

> For reasons which are known to more than to myself, but which the public need not at present know, I laid aside a Practical work on Medicine, with the view of undertaking and completing this,—and I am now going to resume it.[9]

The acceptance of this philosophy by the medical profession was disappointing. Doctors still held to their fictions, and refused to follow Rush's lead or to admit the possibility of applying his method of observational logic to their own art. Their rejection of his principles made Rush bitter. He had hoped, had intended, to bring out a medical work that would be based on facts that were "true to nature," but he realized that unless in some way he demonstrated also his ability to write fiction, his work would not be accepted.

One must admire his adherence to his principles. He insisted on writing the truth as he was able to arrive at it through scientific method; but he was willing, also, to yield to the demand for fiction. He proposed, however, to separate the two, by producing his fictional work entirely independent of the factual. Once the medical profession realized that he could produce the former, he felt somewhat less hopeless that they would accept the latter. But one thing he would not do: he would not prostitute his integrity by injecting false doctrine, speculation and fable into a work which he felt should be based entirely upon scientific observation.

> . . . It has been so long the habit of medical faith, to receive the notions of theory together with the facts of observation, that it cannot even conceive the possibility of their separation. It was on the ground of this habit, so early fixed, that the Greek mythology assigned the arts of medicine and poetry to the same tutelary God. Yet Apollo himself seems to have fairly distinguished the branches of his patronage . . . physic added to fiction would make poetry nauseous; and . . . the fancies of the poet added to physic,

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 474.
[8] *Hamlet*, p. 4.
[9] *Philosophy*, First Edition, 1827, p. 585f.

would make the delirium of science dangerous.

But as the present fashion of the medical schools will have both facts and fictions, whilst good taste and safety forbid the union, I am not unwilling to try to reconcile the difference between them.

In the execution of this purpose, I shall strictly adhere to my own resolution, by endeavoring, in its proper place, to fulfill the duties of philosophical exactness; whilst I consent to humor the dreaming of medical secretaries, by giving them my mode of fiction too: showing however so much respect to good order, as to keep the fancy and the fact entirely distinct from each other. Thus perhaps the Thousand-and-one lecturers of the day, with their Arabian tales of medicine, by finding I have furnished my quota of fable, may be induced to put off the doom, that would otherwise await any unromantic history of nature which I may hereafter offer to them.

In thus separating the hitherto indissoluble compound of medical instruction, I have chosen to form the amount, corresponding to its fabulous portion, into a Drama; that as I elsewhere, with the accuracy of observative science, shall endeavor to describe the works of nature, I may, with contrast both of matter and means, here employ my imagination upon the virtues, the vices, and the follies of men. I now separately publish first my imaginations; in hopes that the placable members of the profession, through this antedating of an equivalent of its customary fancies, may be the better disposed to receive from me hereafter, the otherwise revolting novelty, of a System of Medicine which shall profess to teach, only what the cultivated senses can appreciate.

. . . as I thus bow down, in my own manner of dramatic pastime, to the poetical state of medical opinion, I must plead the necessity of the submission, whilst I endeavor to evade its michievous abasement.—Like the case of that Theban Ambassador at the Court of Persia, who to accomplish his object and to save the disgrace of prostration, dropped his ring in the royal presence, as an apology to himself for stooping.[10]

The completed picture, then, is something like this: Rush sincerely believed that it would be only through scientific observation that the medical profession would ever rise above its deplorable adherence to a theory and practice based on half fancy, half fact. In his own work, his own writings, he proposed to be guided entirely by that method. He had already begun an objective analysis of the human mind; as one phase of that analysis he had described in detail the functioning of the human voice, and now he projected a treatise on the practice of medicine which should likewise be based on a scientific methodology. Realizing, however, that the members of his profession were unready for such a radical departure from the traditional mixture of fact and fable, and were unwilling to accept a medical work without the customary accompanying fiction, he proposed to meet the demand by presenting his "quota of fancy" in a separate work, hoping at a later time to be able to offer a medical work having only a scientific background. The drama which he published in 1834 was a satiric concession to the insistence of the medical profession on what he considered pure fiction.

That he chose verse for his production may be understood when we read that he "had a youthful conceit for Rhyming."[11] His choice of the Drama as a medium of expression may have arisen from the extensive dramatic activity at that time centering in Philadelphia. Edwin Forrest was then in his prime. Through the device of offering prizes for acceptable plays to be written for him, he had stimulated a greatly increased production of dramatic writing. Whether Rush was caught in this swirl of creativity is not known; but it is not entirely impossible that under the stimulation of the considerable activity in his city, he may have decided to put his fanciful conceits into dramatic form. Rush himself gives no hint; it must be admitted, however, that speculative as the supposition is, it lacks plausibility in

[10] *Hamlet*, pp. 7-10.

[11] *Human Intellect*, II, 475.

view of Rush's own independence of thought and indifference in his thinking to the influence of those about him.

The play itself is based on the legend of Hamlet. Instead of being simply another version of the well known story as developed by Shakespeare and others before him, it deals with events leading up to the drama as we know it. When Shakespeare's play opens, Hamlet's father has already been murdered, and Claudius has taken both throne and queen. Rush's version develops the plot, conceived by Claudius, to dispose of Hamlet the elder, and so thoroughly to discredit the son with the Danes that he would not be chosen to succeed his father; for while the king nominated his successor, the royal choice must be ratified by popular vote. The queen herself, already in love with Claudius, is acquiescent in the conspiracy, which includes an unsuccessful attempt on the younger Hamlet's life. The plot succeeds; the king is murdered as he lies sleeping in the garden, and the younger Hamlet has been so thoroughly discredited with the Danes, by the machinations of his uncle, Claudius, that the latter is chosen for the throne.

The verse is, in the main, in iambic pentameter, although, as Rush himself says in a prefatory "Remark," "The rhythmus of the play does not altogether conform to the strict rules of iambic measure."[12] Regularity of measure, he holds, produces a monotony of elocution, which is obviated by connecting "the syntax of successive lines more closely than is usual with dramatic writers." Linear equality he has achieved, not by regularity of accent, but by a balance of quantity. Many lines have more than ten syllables, yet, he says, " if time, and not mere *ictus* be kept in view, such lines will not be found of undue length."[13]

The following passage may illustrate this:

Ham. There lies
A king, Marcellus! No, Death is the king;
And has no under titles. There was, as he
Now lies,—a man, so even and so apt
In quality, that nature's finisher found nothing
To supply or trim for his perfection. (*V, vi*)

All that needs be said of the general style is that it is modeled on the Shakespearean. At times it approaches a dignity and power strongly suggestive of the lines of the Bard himself. The following lines of the King, spoken on the return of his son from the university at Wittenberg, possess something of this characteristic:

King. Now Gertrude, since Prince Hamlet our son,
And Denmark's young reserve in royalty,
Hath, in his answering duty to our wish,
Outstript the speed of expectation, perching
On the hand of our recall, ere we had
Looked up for the wings of his compliance;—
It therefore, of our royal faith, becomes
Us to bestir the thoughts of preparation,
For the appointed congress of our Peers
At Arvic. So with time between, of love
To thee and to our Prince, we shall tomorrow
Set our course to Norway. Come then Hamlet;
Words of welcome have till now so eagerly
Devoured thy time, that craving thus deferred,
Grows clamorous to hear the due adventures
Of thy way from Wittenberg. You show us
Health indeed, but ransomed from its dangers;
Whereof headlong Rumor, over-anxious
In thy favor, brought but broken pieces
Of the story: giving them o'er to fancy
With her wondrous joinery, to make a fearful
Strangeness of the whole. (*II, i*)

Occasional epigrams appear throughout the play. Regarding a scheme proposed by Claudius ostensibly to further young Hamlet's favor among the Danes, the former says,

All living glory comes of managed means. (*II, iii*)

Again, Ophelia, in attempting to restrain Hamlet's impetuous wooing, says,

Love's hasty
Will sometimes o'erruns his duty. (*II, iv*)

[12] *Hamlet*, p. 12.
[13] *Ibid.*

Knowing the uncertainty of the popular will, Claudius plots the death of the young Hamlet in an effort to insure that the latter will not impede his progress to the throne:

> There's wind-taught shifting in the people's vote;
> But Death—yet never altered what he wrote. (*IV, i*)

Despite the fact that the drama is presented as Rush's quota of fiction, the author takes the opportunity now and then to inject his personal attitudes and ideas. His dissatisfaction with the current educational practices is expressed by one of the students at the university:

> *Third Stu.* . . . Lord Smatter, now high chancellor
> Of learning, orders straight our Wittenberg
> To strike that golden motto from her portal:—
>
> WHO TEACHES SLOW AND DEEPLY TEACHES SHORTLY BEST. (*I,i*)]

When Hamlet is given the palace to rule for a time, he determines to appoint a "secretary to each sense."

> The Ear shall have her Actors speak the speech of unoutrageous passion, right intoned with conscious voice; and call for Melody of a master's making, when the spirit of song is upon him, and the world away. (*II, i*)

In a footnote to this passage he complains that in every subject except that of the Intonation of Speech, the excellence of art is assigned to a mastery of its elements, "and to their mind-directed application."

> Man ascribes his intellectual superiority to the possession of a language, that proudly, as he boasts, surpasses the passionate voice of brutes. Yet he attempts to raise the intellectual art of Elocution upon the sufficiency of his instinctive feeling alone.[14]

The medical profession comes in also for its share of ridicule. Polonius and Occleve, a character introduced by Rush, are considering the possibility of producing some kind of dramatic performance. After some caustic comments by Occleve on the state of the Theatre, Polonius asks if they may not have a puppet show.

> *Occ.* There's no chance of that now: since Punch has turned doctor, and by some secret participial use of his own name, for the cure of dyspepsia, is in a fair way to become—the father of medicine.
>
> *Pol.* But do the Faculty approve of this?
>
> *Occ.* Oh yes; and upon oath, go snacks in the mystery too.
>
> *Pol.* Who's to be professor of this branch?
>
> *Occ.* The actors, you mean, my lord. We're to have a stage for scientific theatricals in the University; that the people may be cured of indigestion, by shaking their own sides, at the foolery of Punch and the Doctors. (*V, iv*)

Rush refers here to a newly "discovered" remedy for dyspepsia. It was kept secret for a while, and several members of the Faculty gave it the stamp of their approval. It consisted "merely in a forceful Kneading, or as the text implies, a Punching with the knuckles of the operator. . . ."[15]

Rush's disgust with politics and demagoguery was profound. Hamlet and Marcellus are mingling with the populace, listening to the speaking of various "Leaders," as Marcellus calls them. Hamlet speaks:

> Believe me, Marcellus, for 'tis the eye of scrutiny, and the heart of trust that speak,—the people of their natural blood are sound, till such mounted jockies of the state do ride them to their ruin. The people always have a wholesome wish; their opinions only are corrupt: and the rottenness comes of the demagogue. (*III, iii*)

Rush has one Demagogue saying to a Citizen,

> He that you spoke to is a gentleman. We are enemies to all clean shirts; and to your gentry that use pocket handerchiefs, and have respectable fathers. (*IV, iii*)

[14] *Hamlet*, p. 41.

[15] *Hamlet*, p. 116.

Regarding the misuse of speech in public affairs, one of the Citizens says,

> . . . we are more the slaves of speech than passion. Adam's taste ruined us morally: and his descendant's tongues will curse us to all political eternity. (*IV, iii*)

It is possible that his attitude toward politics was the outgrowth of the viciousness of the spoils system introduced by the Jackson administration (1829-1837). When, stirred by the agitation instigated by Claudius, the Demagogues demand authority to name the king, one of the more sensible Citizens comments,

> And when you have made your king, your throats will dog him dismal—in howling for office. (*IV, iii*)

It is this same Citizen who, to Marcellus' remark,

> I've heard it said, that, Party is the double-crowned and crazy king of freedom,

replies,

> Yes, and governs them with such contentious majesty, that they, at least, will kiss the quiet mercy of a Tyrant's sword. (*IV, iii*)

Such was the contribution of James Rush to the fiction which he felt he must offer if he were to gain acceptance for a scientific treatise on medicine. It fits into the basic pattern into which his entire life's work was woven. In the light of this design his *Philosophy of the Human Voice* takes on a new significance. Rush was in no sense an elocutionist, as Sheridan and Walker had been; he was a scientist, endeavoring to objectify certain aspects of human behavior which, prior to his time, had been treated with a curious admixture of fact and fancy. The present article on "James Rush, *Dramatist*"—the first article on Rush to appear in the twenty-eight years of the existence of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH—may provide the basis for a somewhat better understanding of his underlying philosophy, and of the place which his *Philosophy of the Human Voice* occupies in it.

THE PSYCHODRAMA AND ITS IMPLICATIONS IN SPEECH ADJUSTMENT

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THE attitudes of the individual toward persons in his social atom have been the object for study by many authorities in the field of speech. One of the theories which has evolved almost entirely through observation states that there are therapeutic values in participation in dramatics. Further, these opinions state that the person who acts in plays becomes better adjusted to his surroundings. Very little has been done to explore the sociological or psychological validity of such expressions of opinion. There is, however, a new kind of theatrical production whose basic ideas should certainly play an important part in investigating these opinions. This "new theatre" is the psychodrama or spontaneity theatre.

It is the purpose of this paper to respect, without evaluation, the basic principles of psychodrama, its applications in psychiatry, and to report a few studies in speech whose basic idea resembles slightly one or more of its principles. Part I is devoted to a brief resume of the philosophy of the moment as set down by the originator of the psychodramatic

theatre, Jacob L. Moreno.[1] Part II reviews the psychodramatic theatre in action. Part III examines briefly some of the speech studies which involve the basic ideas of the spontaneity theatre. None of the cases in Part III was based directly on the work of Moreno.

Principles of Psychodrama

Moreno[2] describes his ideas as a philosophy of the moment and it is under just such a title that the whole point of view of his work is expressed. In order to approach the study of the psychodrama one must first realize that its originator looks upon its therapeutic aspects as a form of dramatic art. He does not consider it primarily a means of helping mental patients to a better understanding of themselves and others. The philosophy of the moment lends itself to two other kinds of theatre, the spontaneity theatre where problems are acted out solely for the pleasure of the observers and participators, and a living newspaper dramatic performance which dramatizes the news as its occurs. In all his writings, however, the therapeutic theatre is placed above each of these in importance. The philosophy of the moment may, nevertheless, have far greater significance than merely as a device for treating mental patients.

The philosophy of the moment uses as its point of reference the *status nascendi* of the creative process. The author points out that when the concept of the *status nascendi* is understood, the rest of the plan for performance in his spontaneity theatre is easily grasped. The *status nascendi* is that variable state through which an art object proceeds to creation. It must be understood first that everything has a *locus* or point in space where the creation has taken place. For instance the *locus* of a flower is the bed in which it grew; the *locus* of a word is the tongue of the person who utters it. Every creation begins with a *matrix*, in the case of the flower the fertile seed itself. Between these two is a fluctuating space of time called the *status nascendi*. The *status nascendi* of a flower is then the state of the growing thing as it springs from the *matrix* or fertile seed. In the case of the dramatic art, the *locus nascendi* is in the mind of the playwright who conceives the characters, movement, and background. The *status nascendi* is a long period which ends when the concept of the play as a whole is completed, before it is placed on the stage and is changed by others (actors, scene designers, directors, etc.). The *status nascendi* may be but a brief moment in the creation of a situation as in the mind of a child. Through this it is made clear that Moreno's philosophy of the moment is concerned only with the actual state of creation in its primary situation.

The spontaneity theatre attempts to produce the *status nascendi* of the work of art and at the same time give form and content to it as a finished bit of theatrical art. The entire work of art takes place on the stage, including all of those things which take weeks in the conventional theatre. This is carried out to the extent that the ideas and situations normally prepared by the playwright before production are part of the performance in the spontaneity theatre. During this *status nascendi* the following occur in the order described: 1) the genesis of the idea, 2) the conception and designing of the scenery, 3) the distribution of roles, and 4) the metamorphosis of the actor. There is no preparation in the sense that the actor learns a role. Sometimes he plays himself and other times someone in his social atom. The director, who may be an actor, begins with the central idea which he brings to the theatre, but he plans no

[1] Jacob L. Moreno, "The Philosophy of the Moment and the Spontaneity Theatre," *Sociometry*, IV (1941), 205-226.

[2] Moreno began his studies in Vienna in 1921. He is now director of the Psychodramatic Institute in Beacon, New York.

characterizations, dialogue, nor movement for the actor. The spontaneity theatre produces the moment of creation.

The dramatic actor and the spontaneity player are similar only in that each is the key person in a theatrical presentation. From that point on they are two different individuals in the terms of psychodrama. The mind of the dramatic actor is devoted to the work of the playwright. In a sense he has no mind of his own while on the stage; it is the words of the playwright that he is expressing as his own. The spontaneity player, on the other hand, is the center of all ideas which he expresses. They are his own and the spirit of the role is part of him. The dramatic actor has in reality two individualities, one that he displays on the stage and another which immediately becomes apparent when he steps offstage. During this time that the dramatic actor is on the stage there are many possible relations between the actor and the role. These range all the way from sympathy for the role to one of complete dislike in which the actor distorts the work of the playwright to fit his own concept of the role. The spontaneity player has only one choice of relation with the role—that of complete submission for the acts which he performs are his own and for the most part voluntary. Once attained this spontaneity state carries the actor along so that he is in no need of constantly being ready to react in character as with the dramatic actor who is not completely submerged in the role.[3]

In discussing the mechanics of production in the spontaneity theatre, Moreno makes quite clear the idea of the true present and the false present as important concepts in the understanding of the mechanical details. It is only in the true present that the process of creation takes place. The false present in creation is only a duplicate of the original which gaves the impression of being the real thing.

In the spontaneity theatre the director assembles all the characters and allows each one to be his own creator. The creative ideas of each actor must, however, be arranged by the director so that one actor does not hinder the other. There must be careful distinction by the director of individually emerging spontaneity and that spontaneity which is the result of an outside force.

In his studies of the psychodrama, Moreno has observed that the director has to guard against several forms of resistance on the part of the actor. These forms of resistance are perhaps more apparent when the psychodrama is used as a therapeutic device rather than as an art form. The first of these forms of resistance is that which comes from the actor's bodily movement as he moves about the stage. This resistance like the other forms is probably due to embarrassment at being the center of attraction at the moment. The other resistances are the one which arises from the actor's own personality and the one which comes from the bodily action of the other actors. These resistances give rise to tensions which the director must endeavor to overcome. In the cases of the therapeutic theatre these inhibitions are overcome by conferences with the actors prior to performance. Many times the idea is presented as one of entertainment so that the individual may have a more favorable mental attitude toward the situation. As the production proceeds the director must also guard against the attempt by the actor to maintain the spontaneous situation over too long a period. When relaxation begins to set in the creation has ended. In most cases all of these problems of the director are best controlled through the warming up period. This period may be one of acting out little skits, or it may begin

[3] It is interesting to note that Moreno has found that players who have been trained as dramatic actors do not make good spontaneity players.

with the conference period in which the actor and director talk over the problem in a conversational manner.

Psychodramatic Theatre in Action

Three actual theatres are in operation for the production of psychodramas.[4] These theatres are alike in physical proportions, and more or less have set the standard for any future theatres. The psychodramatic theatre consists of a small room with seats for about eighty people. These seats face three circular platforms which rest on top of one another, and form wide steps or acting areas. Each platform is about six inches high. The largest platform which extends to the first row of seats is about twenty feet in diameter. The second platform is smaller than the first but larger than the third. The steps formed by these levels give the actor many different areas in which to work. In addition to the three levels there is a balcony at the back of the stage to which the actor may mound from the lower levels. The two pillars which support the balcony set off the acting area and give it a slight resemblance to the stage of the conventional theatre.

Imagination is allowed free rein in this theatre. The levels on the stage may indicate difference in social position or a feeling of exaltation. They are most commonly used to show a difference of location. In order to assist the imagination and to give the proper mood to the scenes being played, lighting is changed to fit the mood of the actor. This lighting is not very flexible, but it does provide a bright light for most scenes, a red light for exciting ones and blue light for solemn occasions. Of course, combinations of these colors of light are also employed.[5]

The most experimentation in these theatres has been done with the object of treating mental patients. It is from these studies that much of the adaptation to speech problems has been done. There are two important principles that must be understood in order to appreciate the total effect of the psychodramatic theatre in action. First, the personality is released from any inhibitions by free expression in a face-to-face relation with other persons. This idea goes one step farther than the customary psychoanalytical approach where the patient releases pent up forces by talking to the examiner in a free association of ideas.

The important thing in the psychodramatic theatre is that the personality is forced to respond to a new environment at the moment of performance. The possibility of withholding feelings by the patient is thus reduced to a minimum. Pure free association is free only to the extent to which the patient allows it to be.

The second principle is that the responses of the patient are only a part of the observations that must be made by the director. The relations of the individual to the group itself, as chosen by the individual, are important in studying the inter-personal relations of the social structure. The choices which the patient makes of persons to act with him on the stage are just as important as the responses which he makes as an individual.

The process of preparing for a production in Moreno's theatre is a long one in comparison to the length of the performance. There must be in all cases a warming up period where the patient is either brought into the acting situation by simply talking over problems, or if the patient is such that he is definitely cold to assistance, duplicity may be employed. During this early period the director plans a series of scenes which may or may not be part of the patient's own complex drama. In acting out these scenes the

[4] Psychodramatic Institute, Beacon, New York; Bellevue Hospital, New York City; St. Elizabeth Hospital, Washington, D.C.

[5] Along with his experimentation in the therapeutic value of psychodrama, Moreno has been observing the effects of various colored lights on the actors.

subject chooses certain persons whom he likes to appear with him in the performance. It is at this point that the interpersonal relations of the paitent can be first observed. This key person or persons attempt to act out with the patient the problem that is confronting the patien. The patient then makes various responses to the situation in which he finds himself. The key person must guide the action, of course, for he has acquainted himself with the situation prior to the performance and knows what part he is to portray. For example, the key person must know whether he is to portray aspiration, love, revenge, or despair, etc. While this is being enacted, the whole procedure is being recorded for future consultation. For the most part it has been done by a stenographer, but phonograph records and motion pictures have been employed.

A few cases of actual production will perhaps make the performance in this type of theatre more clear. Ruth Borden[6] reports the use of psychodramatic treatment in a school for delinquent girls. The period of treatment covered four months. Each girl was interviewed privately by Miss Borden in order to estimate the girl's problem and to find her attitude toward such a class. If the girl showed an interest in dramatics, she was told that there was to be a class in acting. If it was discovered that the girl was embarrassed when she talked with boys, she was told that this class would give her greater poise. If the girl showed no particular interest, the "class" was explained as entertainment. The personal interview played a very important part in the treatment. Each girl was then asked whom she would like to have in the class with her. From this choice sociograms could be drawn up in reference to the girls in the institution. At the first meeting of the class in the psychodramatic theatre brief skits were acted out, most of which had no reference to the girl's particular problem. This was still a part of the warming-up period. According to Miss Borden after the skits were made to deal with more personal problems the girls volunteered to act out some of their own problems as part of their performance.

One girl admitted to Miss Borden an extreme hatred of her mother, who was to come to the institution for a visit with her within a week. In the "class" the girl then dramatized the occurrences that made her hate her mother. At times she played the mother, at others she played herself, or some interested person or relative. In this way the girl was led to a better understanding of the whole situation, and by the time her mother came to the institution the girl was able to meet her without the usual difficulties. During the course of treatment for this girl the causes of her hatred for her mother revealed many facts that were of interest to Miss Borden in making the case study. The psychodramatic treatment was used in this school for two reasons: 1) to better understand the interpersonal situation of the girls, and 2) to enable the case worker to carry on research. In both of these aims the use of psychodrama was successful.

Moreno's Psychodramatic Institute received for treatment a young wife who had recently been married.[7] Prior to the marriage she and her husband had been very much in love, but afterward she began to use abusive language when alone with him. In public she remained as sweet as could be, but not when they were alone. Gradually these states of abusiveness bordered on hysterical fits. It was at this time that the couple appeared at the Psychodramatic Institute. Prior to marriage the wife had been an

[6] Ruth Borden, "The Use of Psychodrama in an Institution for Delinquent Girls," *Sociometry*, III (1940), 81-90.

[7] Gardner Murphy, "The Mind Is a Stage," *Forum Magazine*, May, 1931, pp. 277-280.

actress whose specialty was "the sweet young thing." When Moreno began working with her in the therapeutic theatre, she was given what are best described as "vile" roles: those of waitress, cook, gangster's moll, etc. In each role she played opposite her husband, and in each she was forced to use unpleasant language. Gradually her husband noticed a distinct improvement at home, which became permanent after the treatment had been carried on for a period of time.

In another case treated at St. Elizabeth's Hospital a woman of sixty had a delusion of persecution and refused to allow any of the usual methods of treatment to be exercised.[8] Through one individual whom she would accept in confidence, this patient was asked to act out her problem in the therapeutic theatre. This enabled the case workers to get some data they had been unable to obtain in any other way.

These cases, briefly described, show how psychodrama is used as a therapeutic device in treating mental patients. The basic theory is that of the philosophy of the moment as set forth by Moreno in his Vienna Institute. Obviously there are many more applications of this same theory. Among the applications have been its use in the teaching of speech and its use in the direction of plays in the educational theatre.

Psychodramatic Principles Adapted to the Field of Speech

Since the philosophy of the moment is comparatively new, only a few persons have ventured to place on paper the application of any phase of it to the teaching of speech. Among those who have explored the possibilities very briefly has been J. G. Franz of Columbia University.[9] In his classes in public speaking, he noted, as do all teachers of speech, a decided fear of the audience even when the students knew each other. Franz conducted his survey with thirty adult students both male and female. The survey involved two phases; the first aimed at obtaining more conversational tone to the speeches given in class. A sociometric rating of each student was obtained through conferences and dinner meetings which took place before the formal class met. The answers to such questions as "Who shall comment on your talk tonight?" were carefully studied. Three choices were permitted in selecting these key persons. These key individuals then served as a special audience for the speaker in the classroom by asking questions relevant to the speaker's material and by doing some friendly heckling. As a result of this procedure the speakers became more conversational and began to talk to the members of the class rather than to an "audience."

The second phase of this research attempted to study the problems of spontaneity in the speaker. In order to make the student feel that he is a part of what he is saying, a number of impromptu acts were devised. These acts determined which students warmed up most easily. The ideas for the acts were presented to the students and they were allowed to work them out as the action proceeded. For example, in one skit the landlady was demanding money from a boarder. The woman playing the landlady was not sufficiently aggressive, and as a result the boarder ended up borrowing five dollars from her. In order to transfer this spontaneity training to actual speeches, the students were then asked to dramatize situations about which they wished to talk. Franz concludes from this study that psychological networks, such as those drawn up through questioning, may be used to assist in overcoming stage fright, and that impromptu theatre techniques can be used to gain spontaneity in speeches.

Experimentation with various forms of

[8] Frances Herriott, "Diagnostic Examination of Mental Patients on Psychodramatic Stage," *Sociometry*, III (1940), 383-98.

[9] J. G. Franz, "Spontaneity Training in Public Speaking Classes," *Sociometry*, II (1939), 49-53.

therapeutic casting of plays has shown some interesting results. These do not necessarily depend on the theories of Moreno, but are studies that show the applications of the spontaneity theatre to many forms of speech training.

The therapeutic value of participation in Shakespearean scenes was studied by Beth Rudolph at the University of Denver.[10] Ninety-five students in speech fundamentals were used for the experiment. The Bernreuter test gave the necessary information for casting the students in parts that were directly the opposite of normal temperament. Retiring individuals were given boisterous important roles, and dominant persons were given submissive roles. None of the students was told why he was cast in a particular part. After two weeks' rehearsals the scenes were presented before the class. Later the students were interviewed to determine the general attitude. Over eighty per cent of the students felt that they had benefited by playing the roles.

The observations of one other experimenter in the field of dramatics concludes this examination of studies bordering on the psychodrama. This experimenter is Mabel Frey of College of St. Catherine, St. Paul.[11] She has found that dramatic quality need not suffer by therapeutic casting and a great deal of good may be accomplished by casting high school and college students in parts that are going to have beneficial effect on the individuals in their social relationships.

Her method of casting is based on the idea that when the individual is placed in a new environment, that of the play, the new idea takes complete charge and a new personality evolves for the moment, which has a favorable carry-over into real life. She also points out that the reasons for such casting are never made apparent to the student, and the play is not billed as one for defectives only.

This method proved satisfactory in a production by high-school students. In the roles of two friends were two boys who thoroughly hated each other. One of the boys had a glass eye, from an injury caused by the other. This boy was highly conscious of himself and did not mingle with the other students. When the play was first put in rehearsal, there was considerable friction, but soon the two were carried away by the charm of the play. By performance time they were the best of friends. In one of the character roles was cast a boy who had to use a cane because of an earlier attack of infantile paralysis. He actually overplayed his part, so happy was he to be the center of things for reasons other than his affliction. Miss Frey has employed this type of therapeutic casting at the college level and found it beneficial to all students on whom it was tried.

Although the above studies were not necessarily based on the work of Moreno, they point out that further investigation into the implications of psychodrama in the field of speech might result in some worth-while revelations.

[10] Epitome by Howard Gilkinson, *The Therapeutic Value of Participation in Shakespearean Scenes* (1935).
[11] "Rehabilitation of Speech through Dramatics." mss. unpublished.

LITERATURE AND THE PHONOGRAPH

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WHEN the public today listens to singing, it commonly disregards the words, and when it listens to speech, it commonly overlooks the aesthetic properties of the voice. Yet in our modern, pragmatic world shrewd or thoughtful people do at least observe the practical value of good delivery. We well know how persistently speech is studied today by that perfect amateur, the child, and by persons whose professions demand such study, as preacher, agitator, salesman, or army officer. Studied propaganda, in short, pours in upon us by ear as well as by eye: from platform and radio as well as from newspaper and book. But what of the best verse or prose? Is literature today merely reading, or is it also the most delightful form of speech? Reading aloud or reciting were certainly more popular in earlier periods than in our own. As lovers of poetry or literary prose we are, unhappily, far more book minded than ear minded.

Yet literature coming to us through the ear can never be entirely a thing of the past and there are notable signs that the ear is rapidly coming again into its own. Today the radio is undoubtedly our chief new instrument for the democratic spread of aesthetic speech, whether the language is that of pure art or that of the enterprising salesroom or newsroom. With increasing frequency, good radios are equipped with good phonograph attachments, and the phonograph offers new refinements for literary enjoyment and comprehension. The field has yielded its first crop, far larger than many suppose. Richer harvests indubitably lie before us. It is desirable first to sketch the broad and almost uncharted expanse of the available literary records and thus to come to the heart of the problem: the question of what is and should be the use made of them. What is to date the status of the literary record?

I

Largely because of the disorganized and rapid growth of recording, the public hardly realizes the scope already achieved. General catalogues and indexes are as desirable as they are wanting. Any broad-minded organization that first does thorough work in the field of indexing will greatly profit both itself and the public. Here is a task urgently in need of undertaking, by the Library of Congress or some foundation. Records are either commercial or noncommercial. Those for sale are manufactured by the phonograph companies, by the Linguaphone Institute, and by educational institutions such as our larger Universities and the National Council of Teachers of English. The most extraordinary collection is available to only a limited public: the Talking Books, made for the blind. Over two hundred titles, in many cases the longest works of philosophy, history, poetry and fiction, belong to this series, made with the cooperation of the Library of Congress. The noncommercial records exist for the most part only in unique recordings or very limited numbers of copies. Such are the lion's share of the great treasuries established in educational institutions, libraries, and learned societies. Remarkable gatherings of these records have been made in all parts of the country. To sum up the matter in a sentence: hundreds of literary records are for sale; thousands are in a much more limited way available.

One broad distinction is between the

records where authors are themselves the readers and those where other voices, notably those of professional readers or actors, may be heard. In the first instance the author, his subject-matter and his interpretation are of outstanding attraction; in the second instance, the rendering definitely pretends to some very special artistic merit. While in many ways authors are seldom the best interpreters of their own works, some advantages are obviously gained by the author's own voice. We should probably like, if possible, to have both types of rendering. Unfortunately, it must be confessed that the quality of the readings of whatever sort available today is less gratifying than the mechanical skill represented in the physical record. Only Irishmen can be fairly well counted upon to have fine voices. Nevertheless, the work so far produced has, as a rule, unquestionable value.

Acutely aware as Americans necessarily are today of the international significance of culture, we should find the records of foreign literatures, either in originals or translations, of outstanding importance. This field is still relatively young so far as American-made records are concerned. More will soon be available. Publishers, for example, are bound shortly to discover the value of accompanying their anthologies for the ever growing courses in comparative literature and the humanities with records, where the selections can be given in the original tongue on one side of the disc, in the preferred translation on the other. The chief existing library of foreign records is that of the Linguaphone Institute. This well known collection includes fifteen double records in French presenting twenty-five major authors, and ten similar records in Spanish. The German section is still larger, embracing some thirty poets and several prose authors in a series of eighteen double records. In the classical collections nine Latin poets are heard and four masters of prose. Greek is here, as elsewhere, too summarily represented. There are brief selections only from Homer, Pindar, Sophocles and Demosthenes. Much besides the material of the Linguaphone Institute is available commercially in these fields. A generous set of classical records has been processed at Harvard, and Professor Harry Morgan Ayres at Columbia has made records of Cicero, Virgil, Dante and Beowulf. Discs produced in France preserve the speech of the Comédie Française. In the non-commercial field are some very important foreign language collections, as that gathered by Professor Onis at the Casa Hispanica in New York, especially rich in the Spanish lyric and folk music.

Literature in English is naturally available for our phonographs in larger quantities than in foreign languages, although comparisons make it doubtful if today English speaking people rank especially high in vocal ability. Poetry has naturally been more extensively recorded than prose. The older English verse is more accessible than the older American verse, as beyond a doubt it deserves to be; yet our major authors of the last century, as Whitman, Emily Dickinson, Melville and others deserve more honor than they have as yet received in their own country. There are considerably more records available of contemporary American poets reading their own verses than of living British poets. To particularize further: through the Linguaphone Institute alone are offered recordings of over forty British poets, chiefly of previous centuries. Among the British records available are those of the speech choirs which till recently have flourished in England. Worthy of special notice are the readings by Robert Speaight of British poets, prepared under the supervision of Professor F. C. Packard at Harvard. The drama in general and Shakespeare in particular

have naturally enjoyed much favor. Three Shakespeare plays, for example, are rendered at length by Orson Welles and his company. Over a dozen leading actors, from Edwin Booth to John Gielgud, have used the phonograph to preserve their art of rendering Shakespeare's words. In the recording of modern plays, Noel Coward has led the way with excellent records of his essentially lyrical dialogue in dramatic prose. Dialect records of literary importance are especially attractive and invite much further development. We have, however, at least some verse recordings of the Ayreshire dialect of Burns, the Dorset dialect of Thomas Hardy, and the Negro dialect in America. Especially admirable in the last instance are records by James Weldon Johnson. It is, perhaps, not too rash to say that the Irish are far in advance of all other English speaking peoples in aesthetic rendering of language and literature. For the Irish read verse at the same time with enthusiasm and naturalness. Puritanism and the New England fog have not roughened or constricted the Irish throat. Their existing records, too few of which are as yet commercialized, rank among the most precious which we possess. The English and Irish have been more experimental than the Americans in making their literary records. In addition to their verse choirs, are the memorable recordings of the ever-witty Edith Sitwell, accompanied by music as extraordinary as her poetry.

So far as the recordings of contemporary literature are concerned, our own country has been at least the more diligent. We have copious records of oratory and many others of an historical and quasi-literary interest, as the vivid illustrations of world history recently made under the guidance of Elmer Davis. But foremost is the very large collection of contemporary American poets reading their own verses. The last major poets who, so far as I am aware, slipped past us wholly unrecorded, are Elinor Wylie and Hart Crane, although no satisfactory record remains of the voice of Edgar Arlington Robinson. Perhaps the only other leading poet who has evaded us is the politely reticent Mr. Wallace Stevens. With this exception, the score of the most rewarding voices in the country today are all to be heard on commercial records. We may enjoy, for example, Robert Frost, Carl Sandburg, Robinson Jeffers, E. E. Cummings, Gertrude Stein, Stephen and William Benét, William Carlos Williams, Mark Van Doren, Allen Tate, Leonie Adams, Edna St. Vincent Millay, Marianne Moore, T. S. Eliot, W. H. Auden, John Gould Fletcher, Archibald MacLeish and many others. Such poets' recordings are produced by Harvard University, by the National Council of Teachers of English, by various book publishers, as the New Directions Press, by the Victor Company, and through several other sources. Important work of the sort is now being done at the Library of Congress.

Closely allied to the strictly literary records are the lyrics with the aid of music and the preservations through the phonograph of folklore and balladry. Large private collections have been amassed by the folklorists and other scholars in the realm of our indigenous popular song. Meanwhile many American ditties, as rendered by the ever-democratic Carl Sandburg, are available for the phonographs of the American people.

II

Such, in brief, is the present material. These records are, as a rule, by no means expensive, selling for approximately the price of popular editions of books. The basis for a creditable garner can thus be laid with an investment of from twenty-five to fifty dollars. Like books, literary

records have their use in both public and private places. Their most dramatic use is on more or less festival or solemn occasions. The first set of poetry records made in America revealed the truly superb voice of Vachel Lindsay. Members of the American Poetry Society who heard these played at a memorial meeting a few days after his death seem never to weary of recalling the deeply moving experience made possible through Professor Greet's pioneer recordings. In a more cheerful meeting in New York in 1941, at the opening of an exhibition of manuscripts and books by Gertrude Stein, several well informed and appropriate speeches were first made; but the audience enjoyed a rare opportunity to appreciate the qualitative difference between literary criticism and imaginative literature when Gertrude Stein's own voice reading her finest prose came from a finely made record. Under such conditions we best realize that poets are fundamentally voices. The voice is their immortal essence: more than body or face or even written word. To know the best of a poet, it is incalculably helpful, as well as inspiring, to hear him reading his own best work. This record for the ear becomes a more perfect monument than anything in stone or oil or even in print. A modern poet may be envisaged as a church whose interior is still the written word, but whose spire or tower is the word recorded upon the phonograph.

In many centers the discovery has been made that records may comprise recitals, just as one may arrange a recital of music, say, a symphonic hour of recorded music over the radio. No concert is more impressive to a lover of literature than a recital comprised of a score of records from as many poets. The distinct voices, interpretations, and philosophies contained in these intense epitomes stand one opposed to the other with amazing vividness. Divergent idioms, phrasings and dialects reveal as under no other circumstances the differences between powerfully unique personalities. One remembers the singing contests in the Sicily of Theocritus, the bardic contests or Eisteddfods of Wales.

Our schools are increasingly discovering the high value of the phonograph as aid to literary appreciation. In the classroom an hour devoted to an author becomes much enriched by the author's own voice or that of a truly artful interpreter. The phonograph makes quotation a delightful luxury, and quotation is the redeeming salt of any lecture, without which the most erudite discussion remains often discussion—flat, stale and unprofitable. In the modern language classroom the blackboard may come to appear a symbol of outmoded pedantry, the phonograph a symbol of new vibrancy and life. Every classroom used for literary teaching should, ideally speaking, have a phonograph to be employed not merely for linguistic use but for strictly literary and aesthetic use. The phonograph so used should raise the standards of all oral interpretation, upon which all true literary style ultimately depends. Use of the phonograph inspires both teacher and student to read well aloud, to hear more fully with the inner ear, and to grasp nuances quite unknown from the written word. Every school should have cubicles or laboratories where the phonograph may be played; every large school and public library, a loan system for both musical and literary recordings. The latter records have proved of special value in dramatic schools and in training in speech courses, in these instances not only to promote merely accurate speech but beautiful and moving speech.

Poetry should be, as it was in ancient Greece, a communal activity. With aid of radio and phonograph, it may again regain something of its earlier position.

It may thus—I believe it will—recover something of the religious dignity and social force which are intrinsically its right. But poetry is ultimately neither communal nor moral, but personal and subjective. The poet addresses not only the community but the private man, the individual soul. And we must note that he deals with the individual as a whole, not merely with the individual reader. In the silence of our contemplation, the poet's voice makes itself heard. So records prove of value not only in the public hall and public school, but in the private home and finally in the private study. Indeed, most of all in the study, for a very definite reason. Poetry and all the finest literature require repeated acquaintance for full enjoyment. Even though no pleasure quite resembles that of first acquaintance, no first acquaintance with anything beloved remotely equals in depth a long familiarity where the true spirit has been steadily sustained. We delight in the constantly expanding vision which the rereading of a great book or poem affords. A newspaper is to be read once, and thereafter at most only consulted; a true poem is to be read forever. The gardens of a poetical Hesperides never fade. But it is clear that no pleasures of rereading can equal in intimacy and intensity those of rehearing. Through the private use of the phonograph we may not only humor our own mood but discipline our own mind in a profound lyrical and aesthetic experience as in no other way. This is not to make of the phonograph either a superstition or a stultifying ritual. It is merely to acknowledge a psychological fact. Many children, for example, can imitate with startling fidelity a favorite record which they have heard only a few times. Especially the subtler types of poetry now desired, if not often obtained, by contemporary taste profit most through rehearing. Few persons who have played over and over again the records of the most delicate work by Joyce, Eliot, Stein or Cummings and other of our more symbolical writers will doubt how true this statement is. What may wholly mystify us at first reading becomes wholly clear on repeated hearing.

We stand at the beginning of an era, in literature and the phonograph. It is unhappily true that the costs of making records are increasing and that for such undoubted luxuries decreasing funds are at hand. But the march of soldiers, either to triumph or defeat, never has and never will stop the march of the human spirit. Although some of our unique records may be ruthlessly destroyed, accessions are virtually sure to exceed losses. The experiment is still young. Experience will in all probability enable our readers on the records to read more artfully. At least for the professional reader, standards of speech seem definitely on the ascent. The radio is a strong ally. And we shall also in time come to understand better the wise use of our records, on public occasions, in schools and colleges, in societies, clubs and home, and, above all, in the private study. The voice of Man will be heard and understood with new nuances of comprehension as the finest voices, living and dead, become familiar comrades of our daily lives.

Since the United States has been in war, the phonograph has been found to be of distinct value in aiding morale and in contributing to the education of a democracy. Phonographs and selected sets of records have been sent overseas with many units and have been placed in a large number of the camps, usually in the recreation centers, in temporary air shelters and relief stations. New records have been made voicing the cause of democracy, and new use has been made of old ones. The value of these recordings for schools becomes increasingly important, and, with amplifiers, their use can be en-

larged. The following list has been sent to various government organizations and is a fair representation of what we can offer to meet the present need.

I. American Songs

Carl Sandburg: The American Song Bag (4 records)
Home on the Range: Collection of Cowboy Songs (3)
Ballad for Americans: Sung by Paul Robeson (2)
Bascom Lunsford: Folk Songs
The Choristers: (record in preparation)

II. American History

Americans All: A series on Americanization, representing over a score of racial groups (24)
Our American Heritage: addresses dealing with democracy by Washington, Jefferson, Webster, Lincoln, Theodore Roosevelt, Wilson, etc. (6)
Stephen Benét: Unity of Free Men, read by Raymond Massey
Franklin Roosevelt: The Broader Definition of Liberty
———: Declaration of War on Japan
Lincoln's Addresses: Spoken by Raymond Massey
Patrick Henry: "Studidiscs" United States History Series (6)
Paul Revere: "Studidiscs" United States History Series (6)
Drafting the Constitution: "Studidiscs" United States History Series
William Jennings Bryan: The Ideal Republic
Theodore Roosevelt: Message to an American Boy
William Howard Taft: The Rights of Labor
Woodrow Wilson: Fireside Chat to the American Indian
Leonard Wood: Americanism
Albert Einstein: I'm an American Series
Thomas Mann: I'm an American Series
Luise Rainer: I'm an American Series
Elmer Davis: The Sound of History (3)

III. American Humor

Don Marquis: read by Clifton Fadiman
William Lyon Phelps: Interlude on Cats
Stephen Leacock (2)

IV. American Verse

Archibald MacLeish: America Was Promises (2)
———: Air Raid (4)
———: Frescoes for Mr. Rockefeller's City (3)
A. D. Miller: White Cliffs of Dover: read by Lynn Fontanne (3)
Carl Sandburg: The People, Yes (3)
R. P. T. Coffin (6)
Edwin Markham: The Man With the Hoe
Longfellow: Paul Revere's Ride
Whittier: Barbara Fritchie
James Whitcomb Riley: Poems
John Gould Fletcher: Poems

V. American Drama

Abe Lincoln in Illinois: Raymond Massey reading Robert Sherwood's play (3)

(The above list of approximately a hundred records, though variously produced, may be procured through the Linguaphone Institute, Rockefeller Center, New York. They are suggested as of special interest in war time.)

THE USE OF COCKNEY DIALECT BY CHAUCER

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Of all those historic dialects which still distinguish to a greater or less degree the speech of most Englishmen, none is of such interest as Cockney, which was written by Chaucer, printed by Caxton, spoken by Spenser and Milton, and surviving in the mouths of Sam Weller and Mrs. Gamp, has in a modified form and with an artificial pronunciation, given us the literary English of the present day.

THIS statement by Ernest Weekley, a popular twentieth century British philologist, represents Chaucer as writing in Cockney. It seems to be at variance with the research done some thirty years ago by Otto Jespersen, a Danish-American authority on language. Although Jespersen admitted that he was puzzled that statements about the loss of [h] seemed to come so late, still he says in his *Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles,* "It is not easy to find out how old this English disappearance of [h] is. From the great local extension of this phenomenon one would be inclined to look upon it as very old, though why should recent sound changes be unable to spread pretty fast over a large area? I have not come across any older mention of it than 1787."

The question of the pronunciation of the initial [h] in Chaucer has been the subject of much conjecture and some research. The publication of the Tatlock and Kennedy *Chaucer Concordance* in 1927, based on Pollard's *Globe Edition* greatly facilitated research in Caucer, but it was not until 1940, when the *Text of the Canterbury Tales Studied on the Basis of All Known Manuscripts* by John M. Manly and Edith Rickert was published, that really satisfactory research could be undertaken. This eight-volume edition consists of four volumes of text of the Canterbury Tales and four volumes containing the Corpus Variants found in eighty manuscripts or parts of manuscripts.

With this scholarly work at hand it has been a real challenge to take evidence concerning the pronunciation of words in Chaucer that are spelled with an initial [h].

The procedure was as follows:

I. From the *Chaucer Concordance* all lines were listed which contained words with an initial [h], preceded by: 1) the indefinite article *a* or *an;* 2) the pronouns *my* or *myn;* or 3) *thy* or *thyn;* and 4) the adjective *oon,* the same word as the indefinite article, with its negative form *noon.*

II. The derivations of the initial [h] words were considered because the initial aspirate was probably never pronounced in those words of French or Norman French origin; the [h] was orthographic, e.g. *habitation.* On the other hand, words derived from Middle English, Anglo-Saxon, Old High German, or German had a strong initial [h] and tended to keep it, e.g. *hand, hert, head, etc.*

III. The initial [h] words were checked in the Corpus Variants of the Manly edition for evidence concerning their pronunciation as shown by the use of certain words immediately preceding them (see I above).

From the 79 words studied the following evidence was obtained:

An was found before:

haberdasher	1 case
haire	1 case
halle	3 cases
hardy	2 cases
	Variant readings *a* lusty in 4 mss; *a* douty in 1 ms.
hare	4 cases

Variant reading used *the* in 1 ms.

harm or harme	1 case
harpe	1 case
hastif	1 case
hat	2 cases
hate	1 case
hateful	2 cases
haubergeoun	2 cases
hauk	1 case
haunt	1 case
hauteyn	2 cases
haven	1 case

Variant readings used *the* in 5 mss.

hawe	1 case
heaven or heavenly	2 cases

Variant reading used *a* heavenly ivy in 1 ms.

heepe	6 cases
heer	2 cases
heeth	1 case
heigh	7 cases
heir	2 cases
helpe	2 cases
heraud	2 cases
herte	1 case
hethen[1]	7 cases
heyre-clowt	1 case
hille	4 cases
hochepot	1 case
hogges	1 case
hole	3 cases
homicide	2 cases
hond[2]	2 cases
honeste	2 cases
hoold	1 case
hooly	4 cases
hoor	2 cases
horn	2 cases
horrible	3 cases
hors	6 cases
hose	1 case
hound	4 cases
houre	7 cases
hous	15 cases
householdere	1 case
huge	1 case
humble	3 cases
hundred	6 cases
hunteresse	1 case
hurt	4 cases
husbande	7 cases
hyve	15 cases

Myn was found before:

harmes	1 case
haudes	2 cases
haunt	1 case
heed	7 cases
heir	1 case
helle	1 case
heritage	4 cases
herte	50 cases
hertes	4 cases
hevene	1 case
homecoming	2 cases
hond	9 cases
honour	3 cases
hood	1 case
hooly	1 case
hooste	1 case
hous	11 cases
humble	1 case
humylitee	1 case
husbande	14 cases

My was not found before an initial [h] word

Thyn was found before:

habitacioun	1 case
harde	1 case
heed	6 cases
heeste	1 case
helpe	2 cases
herberwe	2 cases
heriynge	1 case
herte	12 cases
hevynesse	1 case
heyre	1 case
hond	6 cases
honeste	1 case
honour	1 case
hoomly	1 case
hors	1 case
hous	6 cases
humylitee	2 cases
husbands	4 cases

noon (none) or *oon:*

harme	6 cases
hasardous	1 case
heed	1 case
heeste	2 cases

[1] The Pollard Text (Globe Edition) and *Chaucer Concordance* give "*a* hethen," but the Manly Text uses "*an* heathen" and no variants are mentioned.

[2] Manly Text—M. L. Tale, l. 669: "An hond hym smoot upon the nekke boon."

Manly—Corpus Variants, M.L. Tale, l. 699: A Han sl; and Ph upon on Fi To

hethenesse	2 cases
hole	1 case
hond	1 case
hope	4 cases
hous	1 case
huntyne	1 case
husbaned	1 case
hyer	1 case

Orthographic [h]:

Almachius	1 case
amadrades	1 case
arpies	1 case
Ebrayk	1 case
Ector	4 cases
Eleyne	3 cases
ellebor	1 case
Ercules	2 cases
Hercules	3 cases
Esther	2 cases
Hester	1 case
Isiphilee	2 cases
omelies	1 case
Oreb	1 case
Osanne	2 cases
Ymeneus	1 case
Ypermystra	1 case
ypocrisie	3 cases
ypocrite	4 cases

To show that Chaucer is consistent in his use of *a* and *an*, *my* and *myn*, etc., I checked lines 1174–1624 in the Franklin's Tale with the following results:

a is used before:

drope	mayde (2)	thousand (3)	clerk
trappe	welle	pittee	gentil
monstre	goode	mirour	peny
sorweful	mayden	squier	wyke
day (2)	nyght	place	lisse
shame	wyf	lewed	wonder
noble	shame	knyght	teere
	daunse	playn	fair

an is used before:

heep	apparance
ende	hondred

my is used before:

body	fay	leve	trouthe (2
name	wo	lyf	dette
deth	trouthe	kynrede	kirtle
cares	vitaille	travaille	craft
deeth		studie	feith

myn is used before:

hertes	heritage (2)
housbande	hand

thy is used before:

lady

noon is used before:

obstacle

This evidence seems to point conclusively to the fact that Chaucer, a good Londoner, omitted the initial [h] from words without distinction as to their Latin, French, or Anglo Saxon derivation, and that the philologist, Jespersen, had reason to be puzzled when he set the year 1787 as the earliest date at which this dropping of the initial [h] occurred. At least four centuries previous to that time, one of England's greatest writers had used Cockney dialect.

TRENDS IN SPEECH PATHOLOGY

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DURING the past two decades the field of speech pathology has undergone significant changes. While the uncertainties of the present make it impossible to project current trends into the future with any degree of confidence, it may at least be of historical interest to attempt to analyze these trends and to indicate some of the factors to which they seem to be related.

In the European countries there has been a significant growth of professional organizations in the past twenty years. In 1927 the Netherlands Association of

Logopaedics and Phoniatrics was established and was granted a Royal Charter in 1928. In 1933, a State Institute for Speech Defectives was established in Denmark and provision was made for the examination and treatment of speech defective children from all parts of the State. In 1935, the British Society of Speech Therapists was formed and the journal *Speech* was established as its official organ.

One of the most significant prewar developments on the Continent occurred in Russia. Russian psychiatrists had long been interested in stuttering (Sikorsky's *Über das Stöttern* was published in 1889) and Rau, working in a school for the deaf, was an important early contributer to the field. It was, however, not until after the Revolution of 1917 that speech pathology developed on a large scale. Speech clinics were established in Moscow and Leningrad and later in other cities. The Otophonetisches Institute in Leningrad, while primarily interested in problems of the deaf, carried on research on other disorders of speech. The Otolaryngological Clinic of the Academy of Military Medicine in Moscow became an important center for clinical work and research in speech pathology. In 1926, a Division for Speech Disorders was established in the Psychoneurological Institute in Kharkov. As an outgrowth of its research on the development of stuttering in children, a special kindergarten for speech defective children was opened in Kharkov in 1928.

Generally speaking, in most of the European countries speech pathology has grown up under the aegis of medicine. In Germany and Austria, for example, the leading workers in the field have been medically trained, instruction has been largely confined to medical institutions, and most of the research has been published in medical journals. Speech correction work in the public schools has usually been under the supervision of a medical staff. In Russia, psychiatrists and neurologists have exerted a dominant influence. In France, laryngologists, otologists and neurologists have been an important factor. The British Society has a strong medical advisory board and a considerable proportion of the articles published in its official journal are contributed by medical men. Professional training in England has been provided primarily in medical clinics, private lecture courses, and seminars—due perhaps to the failure of the universities and teacher training institutions to encourage development in this field.

The predominantly medical orientation of European speech pathology has naturally affected the trend of European development. The principal research interests have been in the organic, neurological, and psychiatric factors involved in speech disorders. Most of the research has been of a clinical nature and a relatively large amount of it has been devoted to the problems of adults. The principal trends discernable in the prewar years seem to have been the establishment of professional organizations separate from medical organizations yet still closely related to them; increased facilities for the training of nonmedical workers in the field; and more widespread establishment of speech correction work in the public schools.

During the past decade, the spreading Nazi blight over Europe has been responsible for the closing, one after another, of the principal speech clinics and laboratories and the suspension of professional journals. Work is continuing in England, especially on the organic and psychogenic disorders of warfare; and Russia may have been able to preserve some of the organizations for the study of speech disorders which had been established in many parts of the country, but it will undoubtedly be many years

before Europe will again be contributing to the field as richly as it has in the past. For this reason, American trends become of increased significance.

In the United States speech pathology and correction have followed a markedly different course of development. It is true that prior to about 1875 those most actively interested in speech disorders were physicians and surgeons. As early as 1825 a private institute, the New York Institute for Correcting Impediments of Speech, had been established with medical approval and had become the predecessor, if not the prototype, of a long line of private clinics, some reputable, some disreputable. There was considerable early interest among American medical men in the treatment of stuttering and a number of surgeons experimented with Dieffenbach's operation for the cure of stuttering. For several reasons, this interest waned and with a few notable exceptions, including Blanton, Bluemel, Goldstein, Kenyon, and Wile, there have been until recently few medical contributors to the field. The publication of research in speech pathology in medical journals has been the exception rather than the rule. A survey of 72 approved medical colleges in 1937 indicated that only one, Rush Medical College, offered a special course in speech disorders, although incidental attention was paid to the subject in a few other institutions. Until recently there have been very few speech therapists employed in hospitals and medical clinics.

The most important influence on American development has been the recognition accorded the field by universities and colleges. In 1874, Boston University invited Alexander Graham Bell to instruct classes in speech correction, which he did from 1875 to 1880. These were the first university classes in this subject taught in America. They established a precedent for inclusion of the subject in the liberal arts rather than in the medical curriculum. The subsequent establishment of university departments of speech, the provision of courses and laboratories, and the organization of university speech clinics have not only greatly accelerated development of the field but have also determined the nature of the training of speech pathologists and speech therapists and have been responsible for the emphasis on research that is characteristic of the American development.

A second major factor has been the interest of public school systems in the speech defects of school children. This has led to an emphasis on functional disorders of speech in children and to a demand for speech correction workers with training in education. In large part it has been responsible for the rapid increase in the number of universities, colleges, and teacher training institutions that offer training in speech correction and for the expansion of public school clinics and classes for speech defectives.

A third major influence on the development of American speech pathology has been the interest of psychologists in speech disorders. Twitmeyer, Scripture, and Stetson were important early contributors. Subsequently there has been a steady increase in the publication in psychological journals of research in speech pathology. This influence has been a fruitful one, resulting in a keen interest in the psychological aspects of speech disorders and in the application of psychological methods of research.

The principal current trends in American speech pathology affect vocational opportunities in the field, the content of professional training, and the nature of research interests. Vocational opportunities in the field are undergoing a number of changes. The most important of these are changes in the organization of speech correction training in the public schools, a growing demand for workers trained in the management of organic

speech disorders and capable of working with physically handicapped children, and increased opportunities in work for the hard-of-hearing and the deaf.

In the field of public school speech correction, there has been an accelerating trend in the direction of state-wide speech correction programs. While the effect of the war on educational funds will undoubtedly retard the development of state-wide programs, growth in the direction of increased facilities for special education, including speech correction, seems inevitable. It is possible that there will be a renewed demand after the war for Federal aid to special education. Remedial education will become more highly specialized, with a trend away from heterogeneous special classes toward special classes for homogeneous groups of mentally retarded children, speech defectives, hearing disabilities, reading disabilities, etc. At the same time, it will not be found economical to provide special teachers for rural districts and small school systems unless such teachers are prepared to handle a variety of special education problems and to supervise the large proportion of remedial education that will of necessity be done by the classroom teacher. The demand for speech correction teachers with training in lip-reading and remedial reading is already beginning to be felt and will be accelerated if the expected postwar development in special education occurs.

Next, expansion of the work of the Federal Crippled Children's Division and the increasing interest in the development of comprehensive, integrated rehabilitation programs for the crippled child will open up new opportunities for the speech pathologist in work with the physically handicapped. The number of speech therapists working in medical institutions is increasing and the war should hasten this development. During the last war, speech pathology was such a new field in the United States that relatively little attention was paid to speech rehabilitation work in military hospitals. In fact, the total number of speech and hearing cases admitted to the official Army Reconstruction Center at Cape May, New Jersey, was only 137. The reduced mortality rate in brain surgery cases and the relatively large number of facial injuries suffered under conditions of modern warfare will necessitate a more extensive speech rehabilitation program for the men injured in this war. These and other factors make inevitable a closer relationship with medicine, which will result in new vocational opportunities in the field of organic disorders of speech.

A third significant vocational trend lies in expansion of speech re-education programs for the hard-of-hearing and the deaf. Until relatively recently, few university-trained speech correction workers were engaged in schools for the deaf or in work for the hard-of-hearing. Speech training for the deaf, from the time of its introduction into this country, has developed separately from speech pathology. Recently there have been indications of closer relationship between the two fields. With the establishment of special classes for the hard-of-hearing in the public schools, an increasing number of people trained in speech correction are finding employment in work with the hard-of-hearing. A number of schools for the deaf are also beginning to employ speech correction specialists. A rapprochement between these closely related fields seems not unlikely.

These vocational changes are being reflected in changes in the professional curriculum. Recognition of the fact that the classroom teacher must ultimately accept considerable responsibility for the management of speech defects, especially in the lower grades and in the smaller school systems, is resulting in a demand for the inclusion of some training in speech correction in the preparation of all elementary school teachers. Many of

the more progressive teachers colleges have already recognized this trend and are doing distinguished work. More attention is beginning to be paid to the prevention of disorders, with resulting interest in what are variously called "speech hygiene" or "speech readiness" or "speech development" programs for the early grades. In the training of the public school speech correction teacher, there is emphasis on more adequate basic training, especially in phonetics, speech anatomy and psychology; on a much larger amount of diagnostic experience; on practice teaching in speech correction with groups of young children; on more familiarity with the principles and procedures of elementary education; and on training in lip reading and remedial reading. New courses on hearing disabilities and on organic speech disorders are being added to the professional curriculum. University clinics are devoting an increasing amount of time to the problems of children and are expanding their out-patient activities to provide a broader cross-section of case material than can be found in the university student population. Consultative relationships with hospitals and medical and dental clinics are being developed to bring students into contact with organic disorders of speech and to familiarize them with the problems involved in the co-operative logopedic and medical management of these cases.

Some light may be thrown on the trend of research by taking for comparison the two periods 1928-1930 and 1938-1940. Using Knower's annual list of theses in speech as a basis and including only studies relating fairly directly to disorders of speech—excluding, therefore, normative studies in speech physiology, phonetics, and language—one finds a total of fifteen studies in the earlier period and seventy-five in the later. In the 1928-1930 period, half of the studies listed dealt with disorders of articulation; in the 1938-1940 period, less than a fourth fell in this catogory. In the first period there were two studies of language disorders; in the second there were five. In 1928-1930 there were no studies listed of voice disorders or of hearing disabilities; in 1938-1940 there were listed three voice studies and seven hearing studies. In the first period there was only one study on disorders of rhythm, but in the second period there were twenty-five (one third of the total). (The remainder of studies in each period is made up of surveys and other general studies.) The increasing interest in speech retardation, aphasia, structural and neurological disorders, hearing disabilities, and disorders of voice was not clearly reflected in thesis research by 1940 but is now beginning to be apparent and will probably be accelerated by the war.

If the present analysis of current trends is substantially accurate, we may expect the following major developments during the present decade:

1. Increased emphasis on speech development programs in the early grades, which will necessitate some training in speech and in speech correction for the elementary school teacher.
2. Continued expansion of public school speech correction programs, more closely integrated with other aspects of special education and requiring the speech correction teacher to have more general training in remedial education for work in all but the larger school systems where greater specialization is possible.
3. Growing interest in problems of the deaf and hard-of-hearing, resulting in the inclusion of courses in this field as one of the major aspects of the training curriculum in speech pathology.
4. Increased attention to organic disorders of speech as the improvement of provisions for the crippled child and the establishment of a closer relationship with medicine make more opportunities available in this division of the field.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LEVEL

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IT IS always with some hesitation that I address a group of specialists whose major concern is one aspect of the curriculum. This hesitation in no way results from a lack of appreciation of the important contribution which specialists make to the school program. Rather it grows out of uncertainty as to the extent of common understanding upon which discussion can rest. Concerned though we all are with the common goal of maximum growth of children and youth, we often find that specialists in particular fields and general curriculum workers hardly speak the same language. Now, however, I believe an adventure in understanding is going forward in many schools. General curriculum workers are recognizing that specialists in various areas are just as essential to the development of a unified educational program as they were to the old highly compartmentalized "vested-interest" curriculum of the past. And an increasing number of specialists are becoming concerned that their special competences unite in an integral fashion to make an educational opportunity for children which is greater than the mere addition of one field to another. The inclusion of the topic I have been asked to discuss on your program is evidence of the concern of your group that the work in speech be a part of the larger design of the school curriculum. It is significant and important that you should consider the guiding principles in developing the entire curriculum of the elementary school as the base from which you will make your contribution to the education of children.

I

It is my experience that there are four broad conceptions which are of special importance in developing the program of the elementary school. Each of these has far-reaching implications for every aspect of the curriculum and may rightly be held to be a guiding principle. The first I shall designate as *the principle of social significance*. It must be recognized that school systems are established and maintained by societies to help achieve social ends. Every modern society supports a school system. This is done, not because of tradition or altruism, but because organized education is seen as a primary means of achieving the values for which social groups strive. The importance of this social basis of the educational program is seen when we recognize the great amount of selection which must be made in organizing the curriculum of the school. Our culture is so complex that any one person can gain experience with only a small segment of it. Consequently one of the most difficult tasks of the curriculum worker is to determine what aspects of the culture shall be included in the curriculum. The problem is further complicated by the struggle of various subjects and fields for a place in the curriculum. A review of yearbook reports, for example, shows that almost every subject group is pressing for more time in the curriculum. The principle of social significance provides an important guide for the curriculum worker in resolving this problem. It may be applied in this fashion: Other things being equal, those experiences of greatest social sig-

nificance should be selected for inclusion in the school curriculum.

It is doubtful that many would disagree with this as a general statement; yet when applied to a specific area it will be found to give rise to differences of opinion. Application of the principle may be on two levels: (1) to a general area or field of activity, and (2) to proposed experiences for children. It is interesting to apply the principle to the field of speech because oral language has generally been overlooked in the elementary school curriculum. It requires only superficial examination to see that speech activities play a vital part in the achievement of broad social purposes. Hardly any enterprise can be carried forward without the use of oral language; and oral expression, including the drama, forums, and the like, plays an important part in interpreting and clarifying the emerging aspects of our culture. There is no need to labor these points, for they are obvious, although often overlooked. One must conclude from general application of the principle that the curriculum of the elementary school has not fully recognized the importance of the oral use of language.

However, in taking the second step in applying the principle, I believe we gain a different picture. What about the specific experiences that are proposed for inclusion in the curriculum? What of their social significance? Are they selected to emphasize the place of oral language and expression in the broader social processes? It is my experience that the answer to these questions in many cases must be "No." Speech activities all too often are conceived by speech specialists in very limited settings, with the result that mechanical aspects of the language often overshadow the far more important social implications. Not infrequently a supercilious, narrow attitude on these mechanical points defeats the larger functional goals. In the realm of oral expression emphasis is often placed on highly individualistic and remote aesthetic aspects of experience. These activities thus become the possession of the few, rather than the medium of communication of the many, and broader social goals are ignored. It is my conviction that oral expression has a wider social significance than has been made evident in most school programs. Speech is not a bag of tricks; its finer modes of expression are not a heritage of the few alone. It is interwoven through almost all of our living and determines in part the quality of almost every experience.

To summarize, application of the principle of social significance leads me to conclude that:

1. Speech activities contribute in essential ways to the great majority of social processes.
2. Oral expression provides an important avenue of cultural interpretation and clarification.
3. Speech activities in school programs are too often mechanistic and limited in scope, lacking the setting of broad social significance and meaning afforded in normal life situations.

II

The second concept, I describe as *the principle of growth.* Your first reaction to this statement may be to ask: Is not growth merely a commonly observed fact? What is there to it except that children do grow up? The answer is that there is a great deal in this process which is of major concern to anyone who undertakes to plan a curriculum. Since children do grow up, what is appropriate at one time in activities and guidance may be inappropriate at another time; what is a reasonable expectation at one time is an entirely unreasonable expectation at another time; what represents acceptable behavior at one time is unacceptable behavior at another time. The program of the school, therefore, must be developed with full recognition of the growth level

of the child. Activities, materials, guidance, expectations—all aspects of the curriculum must take into account the growth status of the children taught.

The importance of growth is rather generally recognized in the child's physical life. Even in the pioneer days of our country when children were considered "little adults" to a greater extent than today, and were expected to share in the work of the family, the principle of relating activity and responsibility to physical growth was to some extent observed. Each member of the family was assigned tasks commensurate with his physical stature and capacity. It is true that industry frequently did not accord equal regard to the child's physical status. Child labor for long hours in unsanitary, poorly lighted industrial establishments is one of the blackest chapters in our national life. But on the whole the physical requirements for various types of activity are sufficiently evident that at least the cruder adjustments have been made. The significance of growth is much more difficult to interpret in the intellectual, social, and emotional spheres. Many people are not aware of the developmental nature of these aspects of behavior and the necessity of taking status in these respects equally into account with physical status. Schools which would not think of permitting their third-grade pupils to participate in high school football competition will plunge them into abstract intellectual materials and mastery of skills which are equally as far removed from their backgrounds, needs, and capacities.

The concept of readiness emphasized in connection with certain phases of the curriculum, particularly reading, is recognition of the determining influence which growth status exerts on learning. Readiness as generally understood refers to the time at which a child can enter into certain types of experience with meaning, interest, and the probability of satisfying achievement. Any attempt to force learnings at an arbitrarily determined time simply because of their ethical, logical, or social importance is inefficient and often disastrous. If the forced exposure is incompatible with the child's readiness or stage of growth, the time of both the child and the teacher is wasted, for the meaning attached to such experience will usually be erroneous.

Readiness is conditioned both by biological factors and the culture. Let us consider a simple illustration of the operation of these factors. Development of the muscles will determine in part whether a boy will care for the furnace, but the general attitude in the home and community toward work of this kind, his relationship with his parents, and his experience in assuming responsibility in the home also will be powerful factors. For one boy readiness may never develop for this particular activity, while for another it may come as soon as he is strong enough to handle a shovel. Similarly in intellectual activities, both biological and cultural factors operate. A child cannot possibly learn to use language before a certain physical and mental development is achieved, but whether he learns early or late or well or poorly is, within fairly broad limits, dependent on the general importance assigned language in life about him, the need for language in the various situations in which he finds himself, and the use to which he finds he can put it.

Readiness is an important concept for workers with children in the elementary school. Introducing, as they do, children to a world packed with possibilities in which only a tiny proportion of the potential experiences may be undertaken, it is of major importance that experiences of greatest meaning and significance be selected. The worker in an elementary school has ever to be aware of growth possibilities of children. He must under-

stand the common growth sequence so as to anticipate when children will most likely be ready for certain types of experience; he must understand which kinds of experience lead on to or foster other desired experience; and he must be able to recognize readiness for certain types of experience when it is present. All of these understandings and insights must be taken into account in planning and developing the curriculum of the elementary school.

Relatively little has been done in studying the readiness of children for various types of oral language activities and the developmental aspects of language through the elementary grades. While development of the language of young children has been extensively studied, as is the case in so many phases of child development, the elementary school years have been largely overlooked. Most curriculum proposals appear to be based on logical analysis rather than on understanding of the developmental aspects of language. In reading, logical analysis has been proved to be a faulty basis of curriculum organization. There is every reason to believe that it is also faulty in oral language. From this principle I would conclude that:

1. The development of effective use of oral language is a direct function of the growth status of the child and his cultural environment.
2. Experiences involving language should be organized with direct reference to the developmental nature of children rather than the logical arrangement of language.
3. Performance expectations should be in terms of the sequence of child development rather than adult standards.

III

The third consideration deals with *individual differences.* So much has been written on this topic and so many plans of curriculum organization have been developed to meet the needs of pupils on various ability levels that you may be inclined to feel that there is little further to be said. The fact is, however, that the most important implications of individual differences are not sensed in many curriculum plans.

There are three inexorable facts which the educational worker must face about individual differences. These are not facts merely to be tolerated in the work of the school; rather they should be made basic considerations entering into all phases of planning and developing the program. The first is that the existence of individual differences is a normal condition of nature which inevitably is present in all characteristics and abilities. Individual differences could not be eliminated even though it were desirable to do so. Whether it be running, jumping, reading, speaking, typing, painting pictures, height, weight, or intelligence, wide ranges of attainment among individuals are normal and inevitable. Not only do individuals differ greatly from each other in abilities and characteristics but a given person will vary greatly in different abilities and characteristics. It is true that as a general rule a person who tends to be superior at one point, will tend to be superior in other respects. The child with an intelligence quotient of 175 is more apt to be strong physically than a child with a quotient of 75. A child who is good in arithmetic is more apt to be good in reading than one who is poor in arithmetic. But there are so many exceptions to this general tendency as to exaggerate differences among individuals. It is not uncommon for a child to have unusual artistic ability and to experience difficulty with arithmetic, or for a child to vary as much as two to five grade levels among the formal subjects. All of which further enforces the point of the inevitable, inexorable nature of differences among individuals.

The second fact of importance which often is overlooked is that differences are not the unmitigated evil which school workers seem to assume them to be. Much of the richness of living and many of the important achievements of men arise out of their differences in capacity, ability, and outlook. Where there are leaders there must be followers, where there are producers of art there must be consumers of art. Phenomenal achievement in any line is phenomenal only in comparison with the achievement of others who do not do so well. From one point of view it may fairly be said that those whose achievement is average and less serve an important social role by providing a background against which superlative performance stands out. The problem of differences is not, in most cases, to eliminate them but rather to develop and use them for the greater good of all. The world would be a dreary place indeed if everyone in every respect approximated closely the average of the group, a condition which school programs often seem designed to foster.

In the third place, education, if adequate, tends to increase rather than to decrease most differences. Comparison of various cultures indicates that those societies in which higher stages of civilization exist exhibit much wider ranges of differences between individuals than those societies with lower stages of civilization. To take an extreme illustration, if we were to compare the range of abilities among the members of a primitive tribe in the interior of Africa with the range of abilities among individuals in our own society, we would find the range much greater in practically all abilities in our own society. This would apply to primary motor abilities such as running and jumping as well as to intellectual, mechanical, and artistic abilities.

In planning and developing the program of the elementary school a realistic, sound view of the differences which exist among children and the role these differences should play in the educative process is essential. Children should be studied to discover what their differences are, not with the idea that they should be eliminated or the program *adjusted* to them, but rather with the view that they provide the basis upon which rich and varied personalities may be developed and out of which a co-operative society with maximum complementary factors may be built. Many present school practices would be greatly modified if children were viewed in this light. The principle of individual differences is of special importance to the curriculum worker in his view of the kind of opportunities which should be afforded children and the levels of achievement which should be expected. Applying the principle to the field of speech I arrive at the following conclusions:

1. All children should have guidance in developing optimum command of speech processes, not just a few who either have major handicaps or unusual talent.
2. Any plan of curriculum organization should accord individual teachers large freedom in selecting experiences for given children.
3. Achievement expectations should never be stated in group terms but in terms of given children.

IV

The last concept employs a word which has been widely, and, I fear, indiscriminately used. I hesitate to use it because of the great variety of meanings that have been ascribed to it. Yet I know of no other word which expresses the idea. I refer to *the principle of integration*. It is obvious that a person develops as a whole, not in segments. It has become evident that it is impossible to provide experience which affects only a part of an individual. Every activity in which a

person engages, every experience he has, involves him as a total organism. Changes which occur as a result of experience are equally pervasive, representing in a very real sense a complete remaking of the organism. When one is thinking, his whole being, biological and emotional aspects as well as intellectual, are involved and are being changed. It is impossible to separate these elements in a learning situation or to eliminate the influence of each upon all responses which a person makes. A number of interesting studies have been made which demonstrate this fact. It has been shown that if one faces a dangerous situation his entire organism adjusts to deal with it. Emotional reactions stimulate glands which make extra secretions, which in turn provide physical effectiveness and mental alertness far above the ordinary. In times of depression the entire organism is likewise involved. An experience may seem outwardly to bear on a particular aspect of an organism but this is only a most superficial appearance. If one cuts a finger it is not the finger alone which is affected. It is the whole person, his emotional life, his attitude toward certain types of experience, his method of dealing with certain types of problem that are affected. He is a different person to greater or lesser extent.

This conception has an important bearing on planning and developing the curriculum. It shows that at all times the total consequences of every experience a child undergoes must be anticipated and studied. A teacher cannot teach language, or arithmetic, or art alone. He must teach children and in every experience the whole child is affected. A teacher may ignore attitudes, effects on character, and the like when teaching children a subject but the effects are there nevertheless.

This principle has a second implication. The significance or meaning of a particular learning is directly related to the extent to which the learning is integrated in the total living pattern of the individual. An individual may learn a fact or gain command of a skill and have it influence his living very little indeed if the learning is not in a life situation of use so that it can be readily integrated into the program of living. The more limited the experience of the learner, the more direct this relationship must be. Thus it is that large purposive experiences are recognized as the essential basis for effective learning in the elementary school. The old fragmented subject curriculum violated this principle and learning was largely of a mechanical sort which exerted only limited effect on actual living.

In applying this principle to oral language one faces an interesting situation. As I have indicated already, oral language and expression permeate all aspects of the curriculum of the elementary school. Yet as a rule they receive little direct recognition as important contributors to the quality of experience. Those of you who are concerned with this field therefore have to ask the question as to how such recognition may be gained. You have two plans of action open: One is to press for general emphasis on speech as a subject in the elementary school with a separate curriculum; the other is to press for general recognition by classroom teachers in elementary schools of the contributory values of oral language activities and through in-service education to sensitize all such teachers to these values, introducing speech activities throughout the curriculum. I have no hesitation in saying that I believe that the principle of integration requires the development of a curriculum in which all subjects assume functional relationships to each other in experiences selected because of their meaning and significance to children. I believe, therefore, that the second course is the desirable one. From

this principle I derive the following suggestions for developing speech in the curriculum of the elementary school:

1. Seek the development of speech abilities in the elementary school in large, meaningful situations of use, along with other language abilities.
2. Aid the regular classroom teacher to see the importance of speech and to teach it in relation to all activities in which speech is a functional element.
3. Always provide special services and instruction relating to speech in the larger setting of the program of a given classroom, never as an isolated program.
4. Always consider the effect of a proposed speech activity on the total development of a child.

In conclusion, let me emphasize that the development of an adequate curriculum is a most difficult task which requires constant attention. You will have gone a long way in the successful achievement of this task if your proposals and procedures meet the requirements of:

The principle of social significance.
The principle of growth.
The principle of individual differences.
The principle of integration.

IS THERE A YARDSTICK FOR MEASURING SPEAKING SKILL?

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I

MEASURING the quality of a speaking performance is perhaps the most difficult and unpleasant task that speech teachers must perform. True, it is a nonacademic problem; yet, it is a job that must be done. Teachers may think it unimportant, but students are inclined to regard seriously the difference between a "B" and a "C," and contest speakers may weep if they are given fourth instead of third!

The truth is that we speech teachers do not assign grades or ranks very efficiently. Monroe, Remmers, and Lyle[1] discovered that the reliability of the judgment of a single student was 0.3, and that of a single instructor was only 0.5. Such data indicate that teachers ought not to be satisfied with their present methods of measurement.

The three methods for increasing the accuracy of judgment are these: (1) A panel of raters may be employed instead of an individual. This method is effective, but not always practical. (2) The skill of the rater (or judge or teacher) may be increased by a training program. (3) The rater may be given a better yardstick than he now has. This article reports certain findings bearing upon the third method, but should be considered significant mainly because it analyzes the problem and describes a method for experimentally evaluating rating techniques.

II

The skill of the individual judge is the major variable in this problem. The speech presentation as such is the same for all observers (excepting the possibility of faulty acoustics or lighting); as perceived, however, there are as many performances as there are observers. Moreover, in even a five-minute speech each rater receives thousands of stimuli visually, orally, and (through empathy) kinaesthetically. Because attention fluctuates, different raters are not necessarily affected by the same stimuli. Not only

[1] Alan Monroe, H. H. Remmers, and Elizabeth Venemann-Lyle, "Measuring the Effectiveness of Public Speech in a Beginning Course," *Studies in Higher Education of Purdue University*, V, 29, pp. 24-26.

do they perceive differently, but also they evaluate and interpret their perceptions in different ways. They are inclined to weigh what they perceive in accordance with their individual predispositions. For example, Rater A may find the voice quality pleasing because of his past experiences, while Rater B finds it displeasing because of different associations. Again, Rater A may judge the totality of the speaking performance mainly by the voice quality, while Rater B may consider the content of the speech to be the most important factor.

The problem, then, is too difficult and too complicated to be solved entirely. Nevertheless some methods of rating empirically may prove better than others. The attempt here is (1) to develop a method for determining experimentally the accuracy[2] with which various rating techniques are used and (2) to apply this method.

III

The technique may be described in two divisions: the experimental procedure and the statistical treatment.

The essential feature of the experimental procedure is the control of all known variables by a systematic alternation of two groups. The four variables are (1) the speaking performance, (2) the skill of the rater,[3] (3) the rating technique, and (4) a number of attenuating factors, such as the time of day, the humidity of the room, loud external noises, etc. The series of items in (4) are grouped upon the assumption that all would act to an equal extent upon all persons in the room. The procedure for controlling the variables so that the effects of all but number three are neutralized is to divide the raters into Group A and Group B. The two groups listen to a series of speeches with Group A using Technique 1 and Group B using Technique 2. Attenuating factors are controlled in that the two groups are listening simultaneously under identical conditions. Speaking performance is controlled because the two techniques are applied to the same speeches. Rating ability is controlled because the groups are reversed for half of the trials with Group B using Technique 1 and Group A using Technique 2.

The basic statistical procedure is the computation of variances and the comparison of those variances by the F-ratio technique. Each speaking performance constitutes a unit for statistical treatment. The variance for the speaker is computed from a frequency distribution of the ratings for Technique 1 and for Technique 2. The F-ratio compares the two variances and determines whether the difference is statistically significant. Each speaker, in effect, constitutes a separate experiment.

It should be noted that the procedure described above is the basic technique; however, it was found necessary to make modifications for certain experiments.

IV

The experiments to be described were performed in sections of the basic speech course taught at Northwestern University during the school year of 1940 and 1941. Robert H. Seashore of the Department of Psychology and James H. McBurney of the School of Speech aided in planning them.

These facts may be considered especially significant: None of the classes contained more than nineteen students. Most of the students were freshmen and sophomores, and none was a speech ma-

[2] The term *accuracy* is used in preference to the more commonly used term *reliability* because we are dealing with a specialized type of reliability that does not coincide with the commoner meaning of the term. We are studying reliability as measured by the extent to which a rating device can be used by different persons to obtain the same results. Reliability is usually considered to be a measure of internal consistency.

[3] The raters in these experiments were college speech students.

jor. The classes, which met for two hours a week, were coeducational. The speeches were approximately five minutes in length, and were typical in that they were not prepared specifically for experimental purposes. The total number of speakers and judgments respectively for each experiment was as follows: first experiment, 34 and 537; second, 12 and 158; third, 29 and 365; total, 75 and 1,060.

The first experiment may be entitled "An Investigation of the Accuracy with Which College Students Use a Linear Scale in Evaluating Speaking Skill as Contrasted with Their Accuracy in Using Letter Grades." This experiment is especially interesting because the two techniques are probably the simplest and most frequently used. In this particular experiment a nine-point grading system and a nine-point linear scale (0-8) were used. The results are summarized in Table I.

These conclusions are advanced: (1) The linear scale and the letter grade

TABLE I

A Comparison of the Variances for Letter Grade and Linear Scale Measuring Techniques as Applied to Thirty-four Speakers in a Beginning College Speech Course

Speaker	Variance for Letter Grade Technique	Variance for Linear Scale Technique	F Ratio	Degrees of Freedom	Significant at 5% or 1% Level	Favoring
A	.5184	.0784	6.51	6/8	1%	L. S.
B	1.2544	2.28224	2.24	5/10		L. G.
C	.3939	.8464	2.15	5/10		L. G.
D	.5814	.5476	1.06	6/8		L. G.
E	1.5376	1.2544	1.22	6/10		L. S.
F	1.6900	1.4400	1.17	4/10		L. S.
G	.3600	.3600	1.00	9/4		NONE
H	1.4400	2.4436	1.69	11/3		L. G.
I	.5329	.2304	2.31	10/3		L. S.
J	1.7689	.8836	2.00	10/3		L. S.
K	1.2544	1.4400	1.15	8/4		L. G.
L	.9801	.3025	3.24	8/5		L. S.
M	.4900	.0900	5.44	7/6	5%	L. S.
O	.6724	.2704	2.48	6/6		L. G.
P	.7056	.1600	4.41	8/4		L. S.
AA	.3025	.8100	2.68	5/7		L. S.
BB	.4900	2.3104	4.72	5/8		L. G.
CC	.0000	.3969	infinity	4/7	1%	L. G.
DD	.7056	.3025	2.33	5/7		L. G.
EE	.6400	1.1025	1.72	4/8		L. S.
FF	.6400	.8100	1.27	4/8		L. G.
GG	.3025	1.7689	5.85	5/7		L. G.
HH	1.2100	.9409	1.29	9/6		L. S.
II	.9409	.7744	1.21	10/6		L. S.
JJ	1.0000	1.2769	1.28	9/6		L. G.
KK	1.6900	1.5625	1.08	10/5		L. S.
LL	.8100	.1225	6.48	9/6	5%	L. S.
MM	.5184	.7056	1.36	10/5		L. G.
NN	1.2544	1.6900	1.34	12/4		L. G.
OO	.3969	.2500	1.59	12/4		L. S.
PP	3.1684	.1600	19.80	11/4	1%	L. S.
QQ	1.3924	1.4400	1.04	11/4		L. G.
RR	.6400	.4900	1.31	11/5		L. S.

techniques are approximately equal in accuracy. The very slight margin in favor of the linear scale is not statistically significant. (2) The data may indicate that skill in the use of the linear scale is increased more by practice than is skill in the use of letter grades. The data are not conclusive, but the point deserves further study.

perimentation because it is well known and is one of the most carefully constructed of the commercial devices available for evaluating speaking skill. The Scale consists of a series of sixteen continua, on each of which the rater indicates his reaction to one particular aspect of the speaking performance. Data were computed both for each speaker and for each class session. The data for each speaker are summarized in Table II.

TABLE II

A Comparison of the Variances of Student Ratings of Speakers by Using the Bryan-Wilke Scale and Letter Grades

Speaker	Variance by B-W Scale	Variance by Letter Grades	F Ratio	Degrees of Freedom	Interpretation
A	.0416	.02735	1.54	6/7	no significant difference
B	.1163	.0586	1.94	6/7	no significant difference
C	.1205	.2485	2.07	6/7	no significant difference
D	.0324	.3583	11.05	6/7	significant at 1% level favoring B-W
E	.1040	.1368	1.31	8/4	no significant difference
F	.1279	.0830	1.54	4/8	no significant difference
G	.09885	.229	2.31	5/7	no significant difference
H	.0812	.342	4.27	5/7	significant at 5% level favoring B-W
I	.2116	.0434	4.64	5/6	significant at 5% level favoring L. G.
J	.2608	.0434	6.01	5/6	significant at 5% level favoring L. G.
K	.1227	.00	infinity	5/5	significant at 1% level favoring L.G.
L	.08195	.2587	3.15	5/5	no significant difference

The second experiment may be entitled "An Investigation of the Accuracy with Which College Students Use the Bryan-Wilke Scale in Evaluating Speaking Skill as Contrasted with Their Accuracy in Using Letter Grades." Letter grades were used as a control factor. The Bryan-Wilke Scale[4] was chosen for ex-

The findings as summarized above reveal that each technique is used with an approximately equal degree of accuracy (or inaccuracy). From a practical point of view the letter grade technique should be preferred because of its greater simplicity. However, the Bryan-Wilke Scale may possess merit as a diagnostic instrument sufficient to justify its use.

[4] A. I. Bryan and W. H. Wilke, *The Bryan-Wilke Scale for Rating Public Speeches* (New York, The Psychological Corporation, 1939).

Certain interesting incidental data were computed in connection with the above experiment. These may be summarized briefly as follows:

(1) No important sex difference in rating skill was found.

(2) Each of the two groups of raters surpassed the other in accuracy of judgment six times.

(3) The class did not become more accurate in their judgments with practice, thereby tending to refute the hypothesis that either method aided the other through practice effect.

(4) One speaker was significantly easier to judge than the other eleven; among the other eleven the variability may have been due to chance. This finding tends to refute the belief that it is frequently true that a speaker is especially easy or difficult to rate.

(5) The comparison by days revealed that the Bryan-Wilke Scale was used with less accuracy on the third day than on the first. It seems that practice in using the relatively unfamiliar scale did not produce greater accuracy in its use. The most plausible guess is that the students used the scale more carefully until its novelty wore off; after that, one over-all judgment was more carefully made and was more accurate than the average of sixteen checks on as many different continua.

The third experiment may be entitled "An Investigation of the Accuracy with Which College Students Use the Rank Order and Paired Comparisons Methods in Evaluating Speaking Skill." The procedure in this experiment was similar to that in the other two except (1) that evaluations were not made until all of the speakers for that day had spoken and (2) that Group A and Group B reversed techniques not during the class period but from one period to the next. The two methods tested were (1) ranking the speakers in order and (2) actually writing out speaker-by-speaker comparisons for all possible combinations. (A is better than B; A is better than C; C is better than B, etc.) The data are summarized in Table III.

TABLE III

A Table Showing the Reliability Coefficients for the Rank Order Method of Evaluating Speakers and for the Paired Comparisons Methods as Used by Students in a Beginning College Speech Course

	Rank Order	Paired Comparisons
	p	p
Series 1	—1.00	.65
Series 2	—1.00	1.00
Series 3	.13	.94
Series 4	.40	1.00
Series 5	.90	.90
Series 6	.43	.43

Inspection reveals that the paired comparisons technique is superior to the rank order in four of the six trials and is its equal in the other two and that the margin of difference is very great. A somewhat complicated statistical process reveals that the margin of difference is probably significant. The conclusion is that the paired comparisons technique should be used when the problem is one of ranking speakers. For large numbers of speakers it would become cumbersome. However, speech teachers seldom must rank more than seven or eight contestants from any one group.

V

The above material is submitted not because it solves the problem of rating speakers accurately but because it presents a technique of dealing with the problem and gives examples of the application of this technique.

The yardstick for measuring speaking skill has not been found. The perfect yardstick probably will never be found. Yet progress is made inasmuch as a method for evaluating the yardstick is now available. With such a method the most perfect of the existing yardsticks may be found, and new ones may be tested as they are developed.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER IS NOT A PUBLIC SPEAKER

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THE primary purpose of required speech in a teachers college should be to increase the teaching effectiveness of prospective teachers. We can idealize the problem and say that the speech of prospective teachers should be improved, that they should learn how to deal with the speech deviates who are under their direction, that they should learn to read aloud, and the like. Yet, when only one course is required of these prospective teachers, as is commonly done, and when we do not have the machinery to discover their greatest individual needs, it would seem that the course should be devoted principally to the classroom needs of teachers.

Two years ago I investigated the speech of four hundred high school teachers representing schools in twelve states and related my findings to the principals' opinions of these teachers. Among my findings were the following:

First, those who had had the most college speech were judged by their principals to be the best teachers in their systems.

Second, those who had had public speaking, debate, and group discussion were ranked next.

Third, those who had had only public speaking ranked third. The group that had had no speech training ranked seventh or lowest.

To check this problem further, I recently had a college teacher placement bureau select at random fifty of their students who were taking practice teaching. I grouped these into three divisions: those who had received "A" in all of their practice teaching work, those who had received "B," and those who had received "C." I then checked the speech grades of each and found that the modal speech grade for those who had received "A" in practice teaching was also "A," the modal speech grade for those who had received "B" in practice teaching was also "B," and the modal speech grade for those who had received "C" in practice teaching was "D."

These data might be interpreted to indicate that those who learned the most in their speech courses were, as a result, able to do a better job of teaching; or that training in public speaking helped them to acquit themselves better before the critic teachers; or that the better student teachers were also the better student speakers. I am inclined to believe the latter. Highly important as I think speech training is for prospective teachers, I think it makes even more difference *what kind* of speech training they have. Consider my reasons why.

There is no universally accepted definition of a good teacher; there is, however, a gaining concept that the good teacher teaches not subject-matter but students. Subject-matter is a means to an end; it must be brought to life, made meaningful, and used to develop the student into a desirable citizen. Teaching is not a one-sided activity. It is a give-and-take wherein ideas are developed, criticized, and used. Basic speech training for teachers should aid them in doing this.

Now public speaking can do much to aid in overcoming stage fright, in developing poise and in using pleasant manners of presentation. It can do much to promote effective planning, the use of specific statements, and general effectiveness. It can do much to overcome the student's tendency to talk at his audience instead of to it.

But the current trend in education is toward teaching, not mere subject-matter,

but the whole personality of the student. Whereas the prospective teacher in a public-speaking class tends to consider persons in front of him as his *audience*, the modern teacher needs to think of students in his classes as *individuals*, to talk with them as individuals, and to encourage them so to talk with him.

In other words, telling must not be confused with teaching. Teachers of speech should be alert to this changing emphasis in education. Certainly we should not console ourselves by believing that a general course in "speech," or one in "public speaking," will give prospective teachers the aid most needed. Teaching is a personal enterprise, and training courses should prepare teachers for the personal relationship that should exist between teacher and pupil.

What kind of course, then, can we offer that preserves the distinct values of a public speaking course, yet also offers training in person-to-person contact? What kind of course can we offer to the prospective teacher that will help him prepare citizens for a democracy, citizens who can differentiate between the reasonable and the absurd, the logical and the illogical? What kind of course can we offer to the prospective teacher to aid him develop within his students those desirable outcomes of modern education, an inquiring mind, a problem-solving attitude, a willingness to exchange ideas with others and to evaluate fairly the ideas of others? *Obviously it is our newly developing courses in group discussion.* These courses furnish the opportunity for person-to-person speech, for the give and take, for experience in creative group thinking; yet they maintain the realization that an audience composed of individuals is present. Also, like the classroom, they require that careful preparation be made, not for a predetermined series of comments, but for a presumed series of ideas in exchange. In general, it is conceded that most group discussion is problem-solving and that thorough preparation must be made to forward the pattern of reflective thinking involved in the problem-solving procedure.

In summary, the argument here presented is that, valuable as is training in public speaking, it is not the kind that is most needed for classroom teachers. Most of all, prospective teachers need training that enables them to teach, not mere subject matter, but the students themselves, their whole being and personality. We as teachers must say, "Do not simply learn these facts; learn to *think* with these facts." To this end teachers should possess the art of talking purposively with students and of developing in them the capacity for self-expression. The best single course now existing in the speech curriculum for this purpose is that of group discussion.

SOME CURRENT PROBLEMS IN CONTEST SPEECH*

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I

IN 1937 the school administrators of Kansas decided that no Kansas Public High School should participate in any contest of any kind held outside the borders of that state. Three years later the National Association of Secondary School Principals advocated the abolition

* This is the fifth of a series of articles on the teaching of speech that has been prepared under the auspices of the Secondary School Committee of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH. For further information on this series, see the JOURNAL, October, 1942, pages 356 and 360.

of national meetings and contests. In the same year, 1940, the Illinois High School Principals' Association took steps similar to those taken in Kansas three years earlier.

Recognizing the trend which was thus making itself felt, the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH in 1940 included a Round Table on "Advantages and Defects in Speech Contests" in the convention program. The chairman of the discussion, P. E. Lull of Purdue University, presented this report to the Assembly of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH:

It is the will of this group that the N.A.T.S. appoint a committee to study the aims of speech contests in high schools and colleges and to study the possible limitations of such speech contests and to report back to a Round Table (similar to that provided at this convention) at the next N.A.T.S. convention. It is also recommended that the committee consist of five persons—at least two of whom shall be high school speech teachers.[1]

The recommendation was accepted and such a committee is now functioning.

The most far-reaching action taken thus far was that of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in March, 1941, when the following was adopted as Criterion X for the accrediting of secondary schools:

To the end that all activities of the high school shall contribute most effectively to the educational program, a secondary school which is a member of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools shall not participate in any district, state, interstate, or regional athletic, music, commercial, speech, or other contests or tournaments involving the participation of more than two schools, except those approved by the State Committee, or by that organization recognized by the State Committee as constituting the highest authority for the regulation and control of such activities.[2]

The scope of this action was extended at a meeting of the Committee of Seven of the Secondary Commission of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held in Kansas City on June 5-7. At that time this statement was unanimously adopted by the committee:

It is the opinion of the Committee of Seven that national contests involving the travel of high school students are not to the best educational interests of youth enrolled in secondary schools, and that the holding of such national contests is contrary to the spirit of Criterion X of the "Policies, Regulations and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools."[3]

The widespread effect of these rulings on contest speech in the high school is evident when it is considered that the North Central Association is the sole accrediting agency for twenty states: Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

II

Peculiarly enough, there is no specific objection or criticism of speech contests, as such, that has been officially enunciated by the organs or representatives of the administrators. Nor is there at present any objection to the contest idea, provided that it be confined to local areas. Indeed, the present attitude of the administrators toward local contests may be termed reassuring. Ellen Boothroyd Brogue, member of the staff of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, writes as follows:

[1] "Minutes of the Executive Council of the N.A.T.S., Thursday, January 2, 1941," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXVII (April, 1941), 313.

[2] *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVI (July, 1941), 75.

[3] To Bruno E. Jacob, Letter of July 19, 1941.

The brief held by the National Association of Secondary School Principals against national and sectional meetings for high school pupils does not apply to local conferences and contests. There can be no doubt that the inspiration received from meeting with others having like interests, the interchange of ideas and devices, the discussion of mutual problems, the competition between neighboring groups, infuses a zest and enthusiasm in the participants that is of incalculable value to the individuals and their schools.

It would be well for principals to organize local conferences rather than let the larger organizations flourish, and it is advisable that these local conferences and contests be organized with the cooperation and under the supervision of the State Associations of the Secondary School Principals.[4]

However, from a careful study of Brogue's writings certain objections to contests on a national scale can be abstracted, objections which can, if desired, be extended to include contests limited to less than national lines and which can be specifically so extended to speech contests, and have been extended in isolated instances. These objections are:

1. Contests are conducted to reflect glory to the coaches and the institutions.
2. Contests develop the few to the detriment of the many.
3. Contests disrupt the curriculum.
4. Contests never provide adequate chaperonage.
5. Contest expense is out of proportion to benefits derived.

An elaboration of each of these five objections with quotations from Brogue's article will serve to clarify them.

(1) *Contests are conducted to reflect glory to the coaches and institutions.* It is the opinion of the administrators that coaches and institutions use the contests as a means of adding to their own personal prestige in the community, in the state, and in the nation; that student needs are subordinated to this desire on the part of the coaches for publicity, with its attendant possibilities for increased pecuniary rewards; and that some administrators likewise seek to use the reflected institutional glory as a means of professional advancement to similar positions in more desirable locations. About this Brogue says:

> It is the considered opinion of this group of high school administrators that such meetings on so broad a scale are not conducive to the best interests of the participating schools . . . [i.e.] of the individual boys and girls, both the contesting pupils and those whose only role is that of onlooker, [but help] . . . the institution and its faculty, who profit most and to whom redounds most of the glory in case their representatives are successful.[5]

(2) *Contests develop the few to the detriment of the many.* The prevailing opinion seems to be that the majority of the students in high schools participating in contest work are neglected while the energies and abilities of the teaching staff are poured out in an effort to make the more proficient those who least need the added training and tutelage.

> It is not commendable if the advantage of the many is sacrificed to secure the triumph of the few, with the resultant fleeting honors to the supervisors of the school and to the community.
>
> Victory may have been won because . . . undue time and effort were expended in the preparation of the entrant to the neglect of his schoolmates, who were entitled to a proportionate share in the services rendered by the faculty and paid for with tax money.
>
> Neither should it claim superiority as an institution because it elected to slight the rank and file of its pupils in order to give more time and attention to the chosen ones by whom it hoped to win fresh laurels and renown.[6]

(3) *Contests disrupt the curriculum.* Students participating in contests fre-

[4] Ellen Boothroyd Brogue, "Shall Pupils Be Delegates to National Meetings?" *Clearing House*, XV (December, 1940), 234-38.

[5] Brogue, *op. cit.*, p. 234.

[6] Brogue, *op. cit.*, pp. 234-35.

quently miss needed academic classes while preparing for or participating in contests. Absence of teachers accompanying students to these contests necessitates the introduction of ill-prepared substitutes into the system, and the subsequent loss of training to the mass of the students. Concentration of a teacher on the contest phases of speech also results in less adequately prepared classroom instruction and less time devoted to individual differences among the rank and file than would otherwise be true.

> It is a questionable practice habitually to disrupt the curriculum for the sake of the extracurriculum. . . . In preparing for major contests, it has been observed, not only does the daily program suffer, but the basic curriculum and all except the chosen activity of the extracurriculum suffers. . . . Contestants are generally prohibited from taking part in other extracurricular activities, and in some instances they are not only permitted but encouraged to get by with the minimum requirements of their curriculum studies.[7]

(4) *Contests never provide adequate chaperonage.* One coach in charge of a half-dozen or more contestants of mixed sex cannot possibly be with both sexes at all times, nor with all contestants at all times. To provide greater chaperonage further disrupts the curriculum. Overnight and longer trips offer too great opportunities for complications which it would have been better not to have provided. "No matter how many competent chaperons are provided, the chaperonage is never entirely adequate."[8]

(5) *Contest expense is out of proportion to benefits derived.* Money expended on contests (lodging, food, transportation, judging fees, etc.) results in a reduction of the amount available for other activities and for academic equipment. Prestige for the coach or the institution, and specialized training for the few does not justify the deprivation of the rest of the school population of their fair share of the taxpayers' money.

[7] Brogue, *op. cit.*, p. 235.
[8] *Loc. cit.*

III

Let us consider some answers to these objections. The first objection to contest speech is that they are "conducted to reflect glory to the coaches and institutions." Well, contests were not initiated with this in mind, nor is it inherent in the contest system. *Their principal purpose was, and is, to develop students.* If institutions here and there are running contest programs to win glory, let us put the blame where it belongs: on the administrator or the coach, not on the system. When that condition exists, in too many cases the pressure comes from the principal or superintendent—a fact that may not be too pleasant to those who would place the blame elsewhere. What of the coaches themselves? The great majority are sincerely interested in the development and growth of their students, and with their personal welfare. That these coaches are proud when their contestants succeed is to be expected. They are eager to have exceptional work recognized in speech as it is in other fields. But for the most part, coaches place a premium upon the development of qualities of leadership, the ability to think logically, to speak effectively, *and to win and lose in a sportsmanlike way!* Any recognition or "glory" that may come to them personally is secondary. When contests are deliberately used to exploit students in order that the instructor may secure professional advancement, it is being abused. Furthermore, it is not typical of the majority of cases, and such practices are condemned by coaches at large.

Second, it is charged that contests "develop the few to the detriment of the many." To begin with the terms *few* and *many* are relative. Contest programs in some schools involve a large percentage

of the students; others have a much smaller percentage. In fact, in certain situations the *only speech offered is in contests;* for, unfortunately, too many administrators have insisted on this only as the place for speech training. It is not true, however, that such development is detrimental to the many. Time and effort spent by coaches on students in contest speech is time and energy spent in the development of potential leaders (as numerous surveys of former high school and college speakers prove). Thus all are benefited by more able leadership in this democracy. Again, contests properly conducted develop *all* who take part, even in practice sessions. The growing tendency is to carry large groups of students in speech contest work, to make no cuts in the squad, and to provide greater numbers with experiences in speaking. This is true in school after school in the Middle West. In my own former high school, for example, *all* members of the squad participated in at least three interscholastic contests each year. The *many* in the school are not neglected in their speech education unless, perhaps, the administration does not see fit to permit regular speech class work that is open to all who wish to enroll. The program of speech education *can* be organized with class, activity, and contest work—and thereby provide for the greater portion of the student body. Often good contest programs have paved the way for class work. Together, class *and* contest can minister to crippled, normal, and superior students.

Now, after all this is said, I want to raise one lone voice, at least, against the dangerous doctrine that superior students ought to have no opportunity to develop their superior talents. It is a current fad among certain educators that superior students must be given no special opportunity, that all students—from the slowest-witted who can barely creep through school by the Grace of God and the kindness of instructors to the brilliant, superior group—ought to be exposed to the same "opportunities." The result is a tendency to set the educational pace for the slowest minded, to deny superior students the opportunity to give their best. I, for one, believe that superior students ought to be *challenged in school to give their best*, and that if we do not so challenge them the *world* in the next generation is going to suffer for lack of leaders. Some day, I hope not too far distant, these educators who try to level down superior students are going to be called before the bar for judgment. If contest speaking were only for superior students, it would justify itself in every high school in America. If that be treason, make the most of it.

Next, do contests disrupt the curriculum? It is assumed that the critic of contest speech interprets "curriculum" as meaning "a sequence of subjects taught in a school." If critics mean that the curriculum is disrupted by the "few who are benefited," they seem inconsistent. Of course, it can be granted that prolonged absence is a detriment. It is possible, on the other hand, that the benefits obtained from contest speaking might approximate or exceed those obtained by the same time spent in the classroom, particularly in certain subjects.

There are educators, however, who regard the curriculum more broadly than a sequence of subjects taught in a school. They feel that any definition must include "all of the activities of children under the direction of the school."[9] In such instances, contest speech would be a part of the curriculum and could not, therefore, disrupt it. On the contrary, it would enrich it. Why should we lose the educational values of speech training

[9] "The Meaning of the Curriculum," Curriculum Laboratory, School of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

because it has been left traditionally on the fringe of the "curriculum"?

Another argument against contest speech is that adequate chaperonage is never provided on trips. This seems to be a sweeping accusation unsupported by fact, and seemingly one that cannot be supported by fact. There may be some quibbling, of course, as to what constitutes "adequate" chaperonage, but common sense dictates that experience and not supposition be accepted as the authority. I can speak only from ten years of experience, but that experience indicates the reverse of the contention. Contest speakers have been termed the "finest group of young people in our high schools today."[10] Both the critics and the proponents of contest speech want to keep them deserving of that characterization. If there be any truth in the accusation, let us remedy what needs to be corrected. But, first, let us have proof! Furthermore, unless this "defect" is inherent in contest speech, the accusation is beside the point.

Finally, the objection is raised that contest expense is out of proportion to the benefits derived. Such an argument is also difficult to prove. Its strength would depend upon the kind of measuring stick applied to the benefits. If mere numbers of participants are to be the index, perhaps the expense per individual is high. If, however, one considers qualitative factors, the benefits might be worth many times the expenditures involved. How can one estimate the amount of money that can justifiably be invested in training four students to be alert, critical thinkers on national problems? Add to this their ability to provide leadership in the communities in which they live, to participate more intelligently in the government of their state, or even to determine sound student policies in their high schools. Would not the spending of fifty dollars to send such a group of students to a state or district tournament or even a possible one hundred dollars for a national tournament be more than repaid by the returns on the investment? One should also not forget the powerful motivation provided for the fifty or one hundred students who participate in speech training with the hope of being able to emulate those selected to represent the school in interscholastic competition. Trips in themselves, as well as winning, are big rewards to boys and girls of high school age. Success in contests also aids in producing a greater amount of participation, with a larger number of students in the next year's work. All in all, the benefits of contest work are more far-reaching than many critics foresee, and certainly justify the small speech budgets on which most schools operate.

Henry L. Ewbank of the University of Wisconsin, it seems to me, has lifted the case for contest speaking above the level on which most critics have attacked it:

> Speech contests, like any other educational device, are, of themselves, neither good nor bad. Their value rests on whether they stimulate the student to efforts he would not otherwise have made, in situations which are measurably like those he may meet outside of school. Speech contests have a long, and, in the main, an enviable history as devices for training superior students who are not stimulated to their best efforts by the work of the classroom. We should apportion our teaching time and decide what part of it may properly be devoted to these superior students. We should be constantly looking for ways of varying the contests so that they may not become stereotyped in form or unresponsive to changing conditions. But let us not discard them unless we are sure that we have invented other techniques of equal motivating power and with fewer possibilities for misuse.[11]

[10] Clarence Dykstra, Speech before the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association Forensic Breakfast, Madison, Wisconsin, April, 1939.

[11] H. L. Ewbank, "Speech Contests as Educational Techniques," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXII (April, 1936), 187-96.

C. Stanton Belfour of the National University Extension Association discusses the subject on the same high level:

> One can make a strong theoretical case against contests. A strong case can also be made against meat eating, but meat eaters we are and perhaps always shall be.
>
> We face a condition, not a theory. The "nervous strain" bogey has been raised often as a contest "evil." But life just cannot go on without a certain amount of nervousness and excitement. Much criticism directed toward contests results from the commercialization of many competitive activities. Objectivity is sometimes an evil, but it can be controlled under proper auspices. . . . The perversions of contests are many, but can be controlled; the benefits of contests are legion, and must be maintained.
>
> The fact remains that no part of our school work does as much as a program of contests in the matter of creating self-control, good sportsmanship, concentration of effort, the value of fair play, hard work, and careful preparation.[12]

IV

The answers to the specific charges brought against contest speech are not new; they are known and understood by all who direct such activities. Speech directors have too often failed to express themselves in support of contest speaking. Rather they have hoped, vainly it seems, that the intrinsic worth of their efforts would vindicate them in the eyes of administrators and of doubters among their own group. Meanwhile, a clear-cut statement of their position by the leaders of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH would be of great value to the speech director who is struggling against the agitations of administrators and the unsympathetic teachers of speech who are constantly presenting their case to his principal through publications of one kind or another.

With this in mind, the following recommendations are offered:

First, that a joint committee be appointed consisting of three members each from the following organizations: THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National University Extension Division Association, and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The function of this group would be to discuss face-to-face the educational objectives of contest speech and the most favorable means of achieving those objectives.

Second, that the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the National University Extension Association be given the right to appoint two members each to meet with the Executive Council (five members) of the National Forensic League to aid in the planning and conduct of the National High School Speech Tournament.

Third, that the first two bodies named above impress upon their constituency their responsibility for the type of contest speech conducted in their schools, as well as for the type of coach and coaching.

Fourth, that the National High School Speech Tournament be held in June after the close of the academic year.

Fifth, that the individual contestant be limited in the number of interschool practice contests in which he may participate.

[12] C. Stanton Belfour, "Non-Athletic High School Contests," *Clearing House*, XII (October, 1937), 81-85.

RADIO WAR PROGRAMS

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I

Introduction

It was almost a year ago that the Editor asked me to plan a review of current radio programs for this issue of the JOURNAL. I have been dreading the assignment ever since. After listening to more than a hundred different programs, I put my notes away, hoping that the request might be forgotten. A telegram this morning asking for the copy brought me face to face with the realization that an editor of an educational journal never forgets.

It would serve no useful purpose to review all or most of the programs heard. To simplify the problem, I have assumed that teachers of speech are interested in public-service programs *directly* related to the war effort; that these should be national in character since our readership is nation-wide; and that the best way to encourage better programs is to applaud the good more and to condemn the bad less. This review, then, will provide an over-all picture of what is being offered, with comment limited to a few that seemed to offer a reviewer the opportunity to observe some important characteristics of war-time broadcasting. In fact, many of the programs listed might be used for assigned-out-of-school listening.

II

News Analysts

Originally, the intention was to review only the news commentators, principally because, more than any other program type, they have helped to condition our war attitudes. When the work was completed,[1] I decided that this type of review could be done better by others and so the notes were destroyed. I do, however, have a reaction to the group, and so before analyzing some of our radio propaganda for the war effort, I would like to comment collectively on our news commentators.

The English learned early in the war that too much news and too many "experts" tended to make people nervous and confused. The gathering of every tid-bit of information made for more listening but not greater individual efficiency, nor did it give greater direction to the nation's war effort. When they regularized the service, the results were apparently better.

Our own radio system is so basically different and so very complex, that one would hesitate to recommend that we should follow suit. Yet, those dial-samplers who are addicted to news, should be given a red or yellow light. The law of diminishing returns applies to news-analysis as well as to everything else, and it might be wise to recall England's experience. In the space of a week I heard approximately 30 "analysts," and at the end of the week, one began to wonder if we were not getting too much stuff and too little substance. Frankly, as a group they were interesting! Their leads for stories were almost always newsworthy but when one tried to put together the facts, predictions, angles, claims and counter-claims, one felt confused.

One thing is certain. The purpose of news-analysis is to clarify a complicated situation. It aims to provide a frame-of-reference in which specific news developments might be given added meaning. Listen frequently and what was intended to simplify and clarify will be confusion confounded. Try a dozen each week and it will be apparent that America has not yet lost its freedom of speech. Listen to many more, and you will be afraid we will! If too many cooks spoil the broth, too many experts could spoil the national direction! One obvious advantage in having many is that we lessen the influence of each. Perhaps the mere influence of numbers provides the antitoxin and again, maybe, it

[1] Those listened to were Morgan Beatty, John Vandercook, Upton Close, Cesar Saerchinger, Cecil Brown, Frazier Hunt, William L. Shirer, Edwin C. Hill, Edward R. Murrow, Quincy Howe, Eric Sevareid, Helen Hiett, Lowell Thomas, H. R. Baukhage, Earl Godwin, Earnest K. Lindley, James G. MacDonald, Kate Smith, John Gunther, Walter Winchell, Drew Pearson, Edward Tomlinson, Dorothy Thompson, Raymond Gram Swing, Gabriel Heatter, Boake Carter, Cal Tinney, Fulton Lewis, Jr., John B. Hughes, Sydney Mosely, Arthur Hale, Raymond Clapper, John B. Kennedy and several others of lesser fame.

people listen as much as research agencies say they listen, it will make us a bundle of nerves, confused and uncertain. The all-important question is whether we are dulling the war-effort by encouraging too many "experts." Perhaps the suggestion that Elmer Davis, as the head of the OWI, should come back on the air with his calm, factual dispassionate review of the most important news of the day should be reconsidered. This could be the base to which all of us might tie, and if broadcast by the four major networks simultaneously, it might correct some of the present speculation and confusion, though I have no doubt that the newspapers would resent the head of a government bureau executing such an important function through radio.

Another reaction to the group was that practically all were journalists. One network official put it this way, "For straight news give me a good speaker; for news analyses give me a newspaper man." The point is that the journalists have added another dimension to their field while students of speech have not added reporting to their field. Most listeners would probably agree that more speech for the reporter and more reporting for the speaker would improve both newspaper men and students in speech.

It seems as if it might be worth a speech teacher's time to find when these analysts are available and to suggest that students follow them for a short period. Let them evaluate what they hear and, if possible, record their talks for the purpose of contrasting styles, and if you've a candidate for an advanced degree looking for a problem, it might be suggested that he test to see which of the "analysts" do sharpen issues, stimulate thought, transmit information.

III

Propaganda Programs

The outstanding public service program at this time, in my judgment, is "The Army Hour." The opening continuity describes it officially as, "A military operation of the United States Army," and from then and until sign-off it uses the documentary method to bring us short glimpses of what the Army is doing. It moves from one Army camp to another, from this country to foreign lands, from a discussion by generals and cabinet officers to drafted and enlisted men. It is documentary at its best and, assuming that its purpose is to give an inside glimpse of Army operation, seems to succeed admirably. It is authentic, generally significant, and paced to give a rapid sense of movement. The official Army communiques followed by an analysis by the head of the Public Relations Division of the Army was, to me, the high light. A band ties diverse parts together. Oddly enough, there is an audience, presumably in New York, that applauds periodically, and that we could easily do without. This, however, seems like a minor fault in such a large and pretentious undertaking. It is produced under the active supervision of Lieutenant Colonel Edward Kirby, Radio Branch, Bureau of Public Relations, War Department, and formerly director of public relations and educational adviser to the National Association of Broadcasters.

CBS's "Our Secret Weapon," Rex Stout as moderator, does an interesting job of exposing Axis propaganda. The format is simple. It utilizes German, Japanese and Italian accents as a method for reading Axis claims. Rex Stout breaks in to provide an answer and does it in a strongly sarcastic manner which leaves you with the impression that we are not dignifying an absurd claim with a formal answer. The manner of all who appear on the program seems to be well calculated to prevent dial-samplers who hear only a part of the program coming away with a wrong impression. "Our Secret Weapon" is made timely by several research assistants who provide reports on what the Axis is saying and its manner is quite different from the usual talk, or drama, or discussion program.

"Pan-American Holiday," "Lands of the Free," "Music of the America's," and "The Sea Hound" are four programs that are related in terms of central purpose, although they seek different publics. The first was arranged at the suggestion of Vice President Henry A. Wallace, and has the direct cooperation of his office. "Lands of the Free" and "Music of the New World," are sponsored by NBC's Inter-American University of the Air, directed by Sterling Fisher. The fourth is a children's program broadcast by the Blue Network.

NBC's Inter-American University of the air should receive the enthusiastic cooperation of colleges and universities. There have never been very many programs at the university level. The public schools have CBS's "School of the Air of the Americas," and the Blue network's "Victory Hour," and for many years had NBC's Damrosch Music Apprecia-

tion Hour. The idea of an Inter-American *University* of the air is new and because these programs are authoritative and at the university level they should receive more college and university support. With our immediate attention so much on the Far East and Europe, it is possible that only the far-sighted will get excited now about informative or inspirational programs about Latin America. If the war were in the Southern Hemisphere, these programs would seem more vital. Yet, though their timeliness is more remote, they are a part of our international policy, and the world is now too small for us to concentrate our attention on only one or two spots. The rumba, American fashion, is not Latin American music and "Music of the Americas" helps to keep the perspective right. "Pan-American Holiday" is a novel and realistic way of learning customs and language. "Lands of the Free" provides historical background not easily available in other forms. Together, we can be proud that, through radio, the good neighbor can be brought into the home and made to seem a friendly as well as a formal policy of government.

"The Sea Hound" is a children's dramatic serial, with a concealed educational purpose. As a result of a give-away offer made on each program for three weeks, more than 90,000 requests were received. The give-away was a specially prepared map of Latin America, about 36 x 24 in colors, showing products, and carrying on its border flags of all the Latin American republics and pictures of the outstanding heroes of each country. The program is planned in cooperation with the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. The Coordinator's Office also supplied the maps. Considering all the trouble caused by children's programs and the additional criticism of daily serials, it is interesting to observe that here is one that uses the techniques of both, yet escapes the undesirable qualities of either. The fact that it is still attractive to children makes it strikingly unusual and worth attention.

"Report to the Nation" through CBS reviews the most vital news of the week and describes how it affects civilians and soldiers. Paul White, in charge of news for CBS, supervises the program; Bill Slocum edits it; and Earl McGill directs it. It is spectacular, yet a listener gets the impression that it is expressing an official attitude of the government. Although it is not as spectacular as the "March of Time" it has greater unity and more direction. It leans heavily on the narrator with periodic dramatic flashbacks.

"To the President" and "Britain to America" will be off the air, unless present plans are changed, by the time this review is published. Perhaps it is enough to say that it is too bad that Arch Oboler, who is a capable radio dramatist, finds it necessary to broadcast his best work, "To the President," on a Sunday afternoon whereas his "Lights Out" series gets an early evening week-day spot. It is not that one is bad and the other good. To me they are both good radio. I am only sorry that the better of the two has to be broadcast at a time when fewer people listen. As the titles implies, "To the President" is a series of letters from the people to their President and explains their common hopes and disappointments, and psychologically has the effect of making it seem that the common man has found a spokesman who is interceding for him. The series could be better if Mr. Oboler did not have so much to do, but it is still an interesting idea, well executed and should be continued—at a better hour.

"Britain to America" is a series of broadcasts presented by BBC and sent to this country by short wave. Leslie Howard acts as Master of Ceremonies. Each program presents in dramatized narration the picture of some one phase of Britain's war effort—the Commandos, British merchant seamen, British war workers, and the living problems of average citizens. It offers a listener an opportunity to contrast life in Britain with life here and it is this comparison, more than anything else, that makes it a real public service.

"The Victory Hour" is presented in cooperation with the War and Navy Departments, the U. S. Office of Education, the Civilian Aeronautics Administration, and the War Man Power Board, as a radio program adjunct to the recently created High School Victory Corps. It is intended for reception in high schools, and has the general purpose of creating attitudes toward the war and toward military service. It is a variety program, with a number of spots tied together by George V. Denny, Jr., Moderator of America's Town Meeting, acting as master of ceremonies. Each week, the program includes music by one of the Service bands, and, in addition, a short analysis of the military situation by a "name" commentator or a Washington newspaper correspondent. The program is being carried by more than

115 Blue Network stations—an unusual station acceptance for a sustaining program, particularly since a large proportion of the stations had to shift commercial programs to make room for this series.

Finally, a word about the more established radio forums. These public sounding boards have their biggest job to do when the war is over. Lyman Bryson, CBS's director of education, recently pointed out that it should be their function to sharpen issues so that we may not make the same mistakes that were made at the close of the First World War. If their function is to sharpen issues, it becomes mightily important that they be maintained during the War so that public confidence be continued and developed. "Town Meeting," "People's Platform," and "The University of Chicago Round-Table" seem pretty well established. They are well planned, although differently executed. I am not so well acquainted with the planning that goes into "American Forum" or "Wake Up America." Speech teachers everywhere would perform a vital public service if they, through assignment or otherwise, would call attention to these public sounding boards. They, almost more than any other single thing, can help to present the issues that will form the basis of the peace.

IV

Summary

A reviewer must doubt if many of the propaganda programs evaluated above get a very good Crossley rating. This does not mean that they are not good. It does, however, indicate that we have not yet begun to compete with the best entertainment. Radio is still a paradise for an escapist who wants to avoid his responsibilities as a citizen. In this connection I should point out that many commercial programs have added important government appeals to their program format, and many of the dramas have reshaped their plots to put emphasis on things that need to be done. Music programs, too, particularly the Waring Program, have stressed war songs and in so doing helped to provide the victory spirit. At the time this is written there is indication, too, that the OWI has a plan by which priority may be given to some of the government's requests, and in this way we may prevent some of the confusion that is now present.

American radio has many good war-time programs. Furthermore, its news, even if there may be too much, still makes us one of the best informed peoples in the world. If our propaganda effort seems scattered, it may be because American radio has always been pretty scattered. That is a characteristic of freedom. That is where speech teachers with their contacts with the public and with students could provide a valuable wartime service by pointing up and publicizing worth-while programs so that they might have more listeners. Our job is to develop an interest in the significant because it is significant, and not because it is always entertaining. This may not be easy, but in the long run would pay dividends by giving direction and greater meaning to our war effort.

NEW BOOKS

LOREN D. REID, *Editor*

Representative American Speeches, 1941-1942. Selected by A. CRAIG BAIRD. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1942; pp. 297. $1.25.

This is the fifth annual volume of representative speeches, all of which have been prepared by the same editor. The methods of selection have been described in every volume, most fully in the 1938-1939 issue on p. 5, and succinctly in the latest one on p. 12. Thirty speeches (though one, as usual, is a panel discussion) are printed in full under nine generalized subject titles. The apparatus of introductions, notes, and other editorial assistance has been well described by an earlier reviewer in the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH for April, 1942, p. 249.

In one important respect this volume is distinctive: it is devoted almost wholly to Americans speaking "for victory"; as the editor says, "This is a collection of war speeches."

As speeches, those included here rank high. No important speeches that come quickly to mind are omitted (except, perhaps, that of Representative Bloom on December 8, 1941). These are better speeches, using the editor's criteria, than those in earlier volumes. Are they better than a comparable group given in the First World War? That might be an interesting problem in criticism.

Another mark of distinction is the inclusion, for the first time, of two speeches by teachers of speech! This is an honor not lightly given. Do they deserve it? This critic ventures to say they do.

To select and secure the representative speeches of the year is, of itself, no easy task. To provide the helpful, scholarly, information contained in introductions to each speech, and to suggest, in plain and forthright language the particular merits of each in such a way as to stimulate and not to stifle further study and criticism, and to do it every year, is a really difficult assignment. But this the editor does, and does it well—better, in fact, each year.

RUSSELL H. WAGNER, *Cornell University*

Principles of Effective Speaking. By WILLIAM PHILLIPS SANDFORD and WILLARD HAYES YEAGER. Fourth edition. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1942; pp. xii + 580. $2.75.

In this revision of their book, the authors have adhered to the basic philosophy of previous editions in attempting to provide "practical instruction in all phases of effective speaking." The fourth edition shows much revision and reorganization, as well as four completely new chapters on the business interview, one new chapter on voice and diction, three new chapters on discussion and conference, and one new chapter on parliamentary law. Besides this broadening of scope, the book carries the complete texts of thirty speeches to aid in the study of the use of the principles set forth.

Divided into eight parts, the book takes up in order "Beginning Principles," "Attention and Interest," "Speech Composition," "Speech Delivery," "Business Interview," "Discussion and Conference," "Parliamentary Law," and "Additional Speeches for Study and Practice."

Revision of chapters from the third edition is chiefly in the direction of condensation, although some sections have been developed for greater clarity. Since earlier editions are well known, these chapters need not be analyzed here. Condensation and reorganization have strengthened clarity.

The new chapters make up nearly half of the total volume. That on "Voice and Diction," written for the authors by Dr. Argus Tresidder of Madison College, is based on the philosophy that one does not have to be a mechanic to drive an automobile, but that one gets better power and performance if he understands its principle. Refusing to go into detailed discussion of anatomy, he manages to provide an interesting and accurate summary of underlying principles. The principles of acoustics and voice improvement are treated in like manner. The chapter is clear, and provides an exceptionally interesting addition to the book.

The four new chapters on the business

interview make a valuable and able addition to college text-book offering in this field. Without dogmatic rules, the authors analyze the problems of both interviewer and interviewee on a basis of principles of effective speaking discussed in earlier chapters. The three new chapters on discussion and conference are, in the words of the authors, "intended neither for the philosopher of the discussion process nor for the individual interested in the background of discussion." Instead, these chapters offer practical suggestions to those "attacking problems of a non-investigative nature." Specific rules and formal methods of procedure are discouraged because they "stifle much that is most vital and desirable in discussion." The chapters are clear, the philosophy sound, and the material complete enough for the purposes of the book. The chapter on discussion is by Dr. William M. Timmons, Ohio State University. The new chapter on parliamentary law is traditional in its concepts.

All in all, this is one of the few recent revisions which seems to have been justified, both in broadening of scope and in strengthening of earlier writing. It is more than a mere re-hash. With larger print, an unusually attractive binding, and valuable new chapters, the revision deserves careful examination by teachers of public speaking.

F. L. WHAN, *University of Wichita*

Studies in Honor of Frederick W. Shipley (Washington University Studies: Language and Literature: No. 14). By HIS COLLEAGUES. St. Louis: Washington University, 1942; xi + 314 pp.

This welcome reminder of the unity of humanistic studies contains fifteen essays on a diversity of topics in literature and philosophy. Two of the essays—certainly among the ablest in the collection—are valuable additions to the history of rhetoric.

Lovers of Burke, already indebted to Professor D. C. Bryant for his study of Burke's literary and artistic friends, are again put under obligation, this time for a short but thorough and incisive study of contemporary comment on Burke's speaking. Bryant has collected some two hundred critiques and observations made by over fifty persons, some friendly, some hostile, some distinguished, some commonplace. These data—or such of them as there was space to print—he has disposed with impartial judgment and summed up with keen insight. The result is the final laying to rest of the "dinner-bell" theory—but not by simple assertion of the opposite. Bryant finds that "the contemporary impressions of Burke's greatness as a speaker were current and immediate, in spite of moments of eclipse, throughout his life, and were not derived from memories of his early successes or from the reading of his printed works." He finds, too, that Burke often fatigued his hearers; some speeches were too long, some ill-timed, some violent and bad-tempered; some passages were over-philosophical, some too imaginative. But he makes clear that from the beginning to the end Burke held his place among the leaders of a minority party. Perhaps there is not enough allowance for the task of a leader of opposition; but though we may wish to qualify Bryant's judgment in detail, the main lines of his verdict will stand.

Dean R. F. Jones reviews the antirhetorical movement among sixteenth century English writers. From a great variety of sermonizers, translators, theological debaters and expositors, historians and scientists, he collects evidence to show that those who wrote in English were not only conscious but proud of a rude, unlettered style, free from the seductive ornaments of "painted rhetoric." This pride in the plain style of simple men Dean Jones opposes to the tradition of *eloquentia* as an attribute of Greek and Latin writing, distinguishes from the anti-Ciceronian movement, and traces to its causes in the Puritan attitude to beauty and in the practical needs of the times. The whole is a luminous exposition of one phase of Elizabethan thought on the subject of style.

H. A. WICHELNS, *Cornell University*

The Story of the Eight-Year Study. By WILFORD M. AIKIN. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942; pp. 157. $1.75.

The Story of the Eight-Year Study is the first of a series of five volumes, *Adventures in American Education*. These books report the activities from 1930 to 1941 of the Progressive Education Association Commission on the Relation of School and College. Volume I reviewed here is an over-all report of the attempt of thirty secondary schools to cooperate with colleges and universities to improve their service to the nation and its youth. This book includes an analysis of the faults of secondary education, a brief general

report of what happened in thirty schools freed from college entrance requirements, an evaluation of the experiments carried on by these schools, and the implications of the study for secondary and higher education.

The book is written with unusual directness and clarity. It not only tells readers what thirty high schools, with the help of experts on records, curriculum, evaluation and general teaching methods and philosophy have done, but it promises to motivate both high schools and colleges to review and reform aims and procedures adapting the general techniques of the experimental schools to individual situations.

For the teacher of speech the story is especially interesting. From Chapter 1, a report of the areas needing improvement, we quote: "Students were unable to express themselves effectively in speech." From Chapter 3, a description of changes brought about in the experimental schools, we read: "More opportunity is provided for study of the natural and social sciences and the arts including public speaking, dramatics, etc. . . ." In the concluding chapters the answer to the question, "What have the thirty schools to say now about the curriculum?" is: "First, every student should achieve competence in the essential skills of communication—reading, writing, oral expression."

All teachers will profit by a careful reading of the first volume of *Adventures in American Education* which Thomas H. Briggs of Columbia University ranks as one of the major contributions of our age to the improvement of secondary education.

GLADYS L. BORCHERS, *University of Wisconsin*

Here's How, a Guide to Economy in Stagecraft. By HERBERT V. HAKE. Illustrated by the author. Evanston: Row, Peterson & Co.; pp. 108. $2.00.

Mr. Hake's *Guide to Economy* appears at a most opportune time. Drama departments everywhere, and particularly in the East, are beginning to feel the pinch of priorities; and lumber, scenery muslin, and hardware are more precious than they ever were. Even departments with adequate budgets find that getting material is no longer a matter of money. Directors and technicians will, for the balance of the war, have to learn a new economy, and *Here's How* is the primer for the non-professional theatre.

Mr. Hake writes largely for the high school teacher and for the school stage, but under present conditions, the larger institutions may learn a great deal about conservation and adaptability by studying his diagrams and text. The illustrations are particularly good, and while the book follows the usual style of other stagecraft works, it includes additional and definitive material in the form of line drawings that is useful and suggestive. The pages devoted to screen settings and other types of minimum scenery will be most valuable to all producers now that materials are scarce. Photographs of some of the author's own work serve as exemplars of good design.

The sections on joining (stage carpentry) are excellent, and follow standard practice, but the chapters devoted to scene painting are unusual and will prove most valuable to the school dramatics director. These drawings and directions, obviously based on experience and practice, are lacking in many more expensive texts. Nearly every student can build scenery adequately, but additional knowledge must be available if the novice expects to develop scene painting technique without a master. This technique Mr. Hake explains and describes; briefly, to be sure, but in understandable and easily followed style. The section of repairing scenery is more valuable than ever, and will show many small drama groups how the life of their equipment may be lengthened.

The author lists dozens of firms that stock theatrical equipment: Many of these are located in the West and Middle West, a fact useful to readers living at distances from central supply houses in New York.

As the work follows somewhat the conventional stagecraft book style, it seems unnecessary to list chapter headings here. Suffice it to say, however, that the scope of the text includes scenery, props, lighting and sound effects. The pages on home-made lighting equipment are sensible and the work involved is within the abilities and budget of a small workshop group.

The many excellent photographs of productions at the University of Missouri and Iowa State Teachers College prove the point of the author's thesis: that good craftsmanship and adequate material can unite with best results when there is true economy of planning, of labor and of money.

Mr. Hake has eschewed a discussion of revolving stages, trucks, and other expensive

scene-shifting devices. He has sincerely and consistently planned for the small stage on which ponderous and costly aids to illusion have no place. A few variations in practice will be noted by readers particularly trained in some specific field, but in the main, and despite its simplicity, the book indicates standard theatre practice throughout.

ROBERT J. WADE, *Emerson College and Wellesley College*

Speech Abstracts, vol. II. Mimeographed. Compiled by CLYDE W. DOW. $1.00.

The second volume of *Speech Abstracts*, consisting of a compilation of experimental studies for which degrees were awarded in 1940-41, represents an improvement and an expansion over that of Volume I. The printed, bound, stiff paper cover makes it much more durable, and allows for placement on the bookshelf without damage. The mimeographing job is much superior. Whereas Volume I contained the abstracts of twenty-nine studies from eleven institutions, Volume II reports thirty-eight studies from eighteen colleges and universities. With the exception of adding the name of the editor to the heading of each abstract, the form of the compilation is the same as before.

Seven abstracts of doctoral dissertations were included in the compilation of 1939-40 studies, while only three were included in Volume II. Since it is presumed that there were surely more than three Ph.D. studies completed in 1940-41, one wonders whether Mr. Dow is getting the whole-hearted cooperation of his staff of editors.

Speech Abstracts is filling an urgent need of providing periodic reports of the graduate studies in speech made throughout the country. This compilation should be available for all those interested in the progress of research in speech.

RAY E. HOLCOMBE, *Ithaca College*

The "Eight Points" of Post-War World Reorganization. Compiled by JULIA E. JOHNSEN. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1942; pp. 126. $.90.

The present volume is one of a series of titles in the Reference Shelf planned for speakers and writers interested in the post-war world. Besides the Roosevelt-Churchill declaration and excerpts from two reports of the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, the book contains reprints of articles, or parts of articles, by James Truslow Adams, Quincy Wright, William P. Maddox, Vlastimil Kybal, Max Lerner, and Bertram Pickard. The contributions of Maddox, Kybal, and Lerner will be especially helpful in providing an understanding of the basic problems of a world federation.

A current and orderly bibliography concludes the work.

WILLIAM EARL SEELEN, *University of Missouri*

The Practice of Speech Correction in the Medical Clinic. By MARY WEHE HUBER. Together with *Speech Correction from a Dental Viewpoint* by A. E. KOPP. Boston: The Expression Company, 1942; pp. 72. $1.75.

Stressing the growing importance of speech clinics in connection with hospitals and medical centers, this little book is an attempt to familiarize the prospective speech therapist with the minimum essentials for practice in such institutions.

The work might well serve as an introduction to the clinical practice of speech correction. It states the professional and personal qualifications of a successful therapist, lists the minimum essentials for a speech laboratory, and sets forth concisely in nine brief chapters a digest of the nature and symptoms within the general classifications of pathogenic disorders. Included are: "Some General Considerations Regarding Conditions in the Mouth, Pharynx, Nose and Larynx"; "The Phenomenon of Allergy in Relation to Vocal and Articulatory Disturbances"; "The Significance of Adenoid Vegetations in Speech Rehabilitation"; "Cleft Lip and Palate"; "The Etiology, Symptomatology and Treatment of Hoarseness and Other Vocal Disturbances"; "Vicarious Voice"; "Functional Aphonia or Dysphonia"; "Some Mechanical and Psychological Problems of Laryngectomy."

The author states as her aim, "to draw attention to the more unusual anomalies that are likely to complicate the speech picture of those cases where disease has been permitted to gain a strong foothold in the physical mechanism." This she succeeds in doing in the fewest possible words, particularly since there is "no attempt to cover the whole range of speech disorders."

Drawing, I presume, from her own experi-

ence she proposes that "it should be the special concern of all those who would eventually operate in the medical sphere to learn some of the characteristic problems that face the speech correctionist in these institutions." These problems are presented in the following questions and for the most part are adequately answered: "What demands might be made upon the clinician in terms of academic preparation, technical skills, professional ethics, and personal qualifications? What types of cases are likely to be referred to the hospital speech correctionist? How have such cases been handled previously? And what can the correctionist contribute to their most effective management in the future?"

The points set forth are supported by extensive quotations from the thirty-nine biographical references at the end of the book. Most of the authorities listed deal with the medical, surgical, and psychological aspects of speech disorders. There are several good photographs in the chapter on "Cleft Lip and Palate"; and of models of irregularities of teeth which affect speech, in the section on "Speech Correction from a Dental Viewpoint," by the co-author. Case histories on nine different disorders make up the last chapter.

While the distinction between the function of the medical doctor and the clinician is not made very clear, a safeguard seems to appear in the statement that, "Without failing to recognize the delimitations of his field, the speech correctionist must know when to solicit the full cooperation of the departments of otolaryngology, neurology, internal medicine, mental and nervous diseases, oral surgery, and pediatrics."

The preface is by Robert West.

H. J. HELTMAN, *Syracuse University*

Speech Training for the Deaf Child. By SYLVIAN M. MARTIN. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd.; New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., Distributors, 1941; pp. 114. $1.00.

This little book was written by a practical speech therapist for parents of deaf mute and partially deaf children. It is written in non-technical language which should be intelligible to anyone.

The first part of the book treats the deaf mute child in nine brief chapters. The words of hope, encouragement, and confidence which the author directs to parents of these children contain a vital message which will undoubtedly lessen the tension and frustration in their homes. The guidance in teaching which is offered includes: first steps of speech training, the alphabet, combined sounds, short words, short sentences, learning to write, the voice, and stimulating the residual hearing. The material and procedures are designed to provide the deaf child with language training during the educationally important pre-school years.

Part II of the book deals with the slightly deaf child. There are six short chapters in which the author discusses discrimination of vowels and consonants, purity of vowel sounds, accuracy of consonants, combinations of consonants, and accounts of some cases she has helped. The individual sounds of the language are presented as being like the sounds in key words. No phonetic or diacritic markings are used. Much of the practice material for the consonants is of the nonsensical and tongue-twister variety which have always seemed to me to misdirect vocal energy.

The author expresses a hope that her book will be used by teachers and speech therapists as well as parents. I sincerely hope that our teachers of the deaf and speech correctionists are advanced beyond this primer. However, the book should be helpful to the parents for whom it is written, but even they should be warned that incorrect language habits are as easily acquired as correct language habits and that it is easier to educate than to re-educate.

GEORGE A. KOPP, *Teachers College, Columbia University*

Training the Speaking Voice. By Virgil A. Anderson. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942; pp. xx, 387.

In spite of the name this is another book on voice *and* "diction," with a hint, even, here and there, concerning the ideational aspects of speech. Almost one third of the book is given over to "diction" or "articulation."

Echoing Wesley Mills' *Voice Production* of a generation ago, the author aims to develop a plan of voice training against the background of present-day scientific knowledge. The book holds a nice balance between precise scientific statement and a useful, functional presentation directed at those not interested in the scientific facts except as means

to an end. Occasional laxness in statement (from a scientific viewpoint) seems, therefore, generally desirable.

Well over a third of the book is made up of exercises and practice selections. The exercises are planned integrally with the discussion, increasing the value of the book as a planned study medium, decreasing its value as a separate manual. The exercise material is varied and sufficiently generous to allow opportunity for choice. The practice selections are justly circumscribed as it is simple to supplement with numerous available collections.

The book shows a definite trend away from the mechanistic approach to voice (and "diction") training. It is gratifying to see consideration given to voice and personality. One can but wish for more—wish the author were less concerned that "the problem takes one considerably beyond the limitations of what is ordinarily defined as voice training proper."

Some details stand out. The format is good, although more minutiae in the table of contents, and annotations in the bibliography would be helpful. The drawings in Chapters 2 and 3 have merit. Many will disagree with the author's concentration on "central, medial or diaphragmatic breathing" for speech—but he makes a good case. The drawings on p. 123 are graphic but misleading in that they disregard the role of the pharyngeal muscles. The text reinforces this misconception: "the size of the posterior opening into the nasal resonator, regulated by the action of the velum. . . ." The drawings on p. 128 (considered with those on p. 123) seem to indicate absence of any nasality in the vowels [u] and [i]. The style is less labored than that of many textbooks. The "Introduction" is a stimulating essay.

The utility of this book for individual study outside the college curriculum is apparent. Its place in a program for those specializing in speech training in college is clear. However, considered as a vehicle for fundamentals of speech it raises the old question (will it ever be answered, really?) of what is the basic purpose of a fundamentals of speech course. Should this course settle down to personal voice and "diction" improvement, or should it introduce the student to the various aspects of speech education?

D. W. Morris, *Indiana State Teachers College*

Terminology and Definitions of Speech Defects. By Mardel Ogilvie. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 859. 1942; pp. 300. $3.25.

The author's purpose in this book is "to lay the groundwork for the necessary clarification and systematization [of speech defects] by giving [their] existing terminology and definitions and showing the similarities and dissimilarities within them." The book contains a discussion section and four appendices. The first part states the principles by which the author was guided in compiling the material, a discussion of the sources out of which the terminology has grown, suggested reasons for the large number of terms used in the literature, an analysis of the reasons for differences in meaning assigned to many terms denoting speech defects, and conclusions and recommendations regarding further attempts at the difficult task of formulating a revised system of terminology and definition in this field.

Four appendices form the bulk of the book. Appendix A contains outlines and tables showing similarities and dissimilarities in defective speech terms and their definitions. Appendix B presents a compilation of existing terminology and definitions built upon the material in Appendix A. Where there is a difference of opinion on terminology and definition, this glossary uses items of symptomatology and etiology as given by the majority of the writers consulted for this study. The terms declared by one or more of the various authors to be a synonym of another term are indicated by an asterisk. Appendix C lists a bibliography of approximately one thousand references chosen principally from English, French, and German literature. Appendix D is an index to Appendix A.

In the preparation of this compilation of terms and definitions the author investigated reference books and dictionaries, indices to scientific periodical literature, and pertinent literature in the fields of speech, medicine, psychology, psychiatry and neurology from 1830 to 1936. The definitions were collected and catalogued according to their reference to overt symptomatology of speech and organs, and to etiology. They have been arranged in Appendix A under eleven major classifications: defects of articulation; defects of pitch; defects of volume; defects of quality; defects of speed; defects of breathing;

defects of stress, articulation, and melody; defects of meaning; stuttering, stammering and related disorders; the aphasias; and miscellaneous nervous defects. The definitions are subdivided under six headings according to the classification of literature from which they were taken. Key numbers and dates show who used the term or phrase and the publication date of the source.

The reader will find this book a valuable reference work for his professional library. The author's claim of purpose is well sustained, and the book gives evidence of a large amount of careful sorting and compiling. It is debatable whether the classification of definitions according to their sources contributes very much to the average professional reader. The eleven major classifications noted above are almost certain to provoke argument regarding the wisdom of these divisions. The value of the system used to indicate that an author held a certain term to be a synonym for another is not readily apparent. As a whole, however, this book offers a fine beginning to the solution of our long felt need for a systematically based terminology of disorders of speech.

HARLAN BLOOMER, *University of Michigan*

Wartime Censorship of Press and Radio. Compiled by ROBERT E. SUMMERS. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1942; pp. 297. $1.25.

Permanent Price Control Policy. Compiled by JULIA E. JOHNSEN. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1942; pp. 113. $1.25.

Plans for a Post-War World. Compiled by JULIA E. JOHNSEN. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1942; pp. 238. $1.25.

In the frequent condemnations of "debate handy-dandy-books" by college directors of forensics one seldom finds any mention of the publications in the Reference Shelf series. This omission from the indictment is significant; fresh evidence that it is an altogether proper exception is to be found by examining three of the most recent additions to that series. These volumes deal with the general problems of wartime censorship, price control policy, and plans for a post-war world. The pattern of each one follows those of its predecessors: full texts and excerpts from notable speeches, editorials, books, and magazine articles are arranged in a satisfactory topical order to give the reader a comprehensive picture of problem, analysis, and conflicting points of view; each volume also includes a good working bibliography. The intelligent student who reads these volumes in preparation for forensic activity will find no ready-made briefs or canned speeches, but he will possess a wealth of evidence and argument gathered from a wide range of sources. With this material as a background his further study of specific aspects of the problem should be easier and more efficient; the foundations of his persuasion will be solid.

The problems of wartime censorship, price control, and post-war political reorganization, in these days of World War II, are far from static. It will be no surprise, therefore, to find that materials collected for these volumes in the summer of 1942 fail to foreshadow, much less include, recent developments. They were up-to-date when originally compiled and their value as background material is not diminished by the headlines of today. It is equally obvious that no other compiler would select exactly the same materials for inclusion in any one of these volumes; every reader is apt to feel that some significant contributions to American thought on these problems have been omitted and that at least a few of doubtful value have been included. On the whole, however, most critical readers will undoubtedly conclude that the compilers maintained exceptionally high standards in selecting materials for inclusion.

In this reviewer's judgment the volume on wartime censorship of press and radio is especially commendable for its broad and analytical approach, for its "behind-the-scenes" reports of specific censorship cases, and for its selection of materials from such sources as *Editor & Publisher, Variety,* and others not generally found in the college library. The volume on price control is of special value because it moves beyond the specific problems of maintaining a healthy wartime economy and assays the value of a permanent program of price control in a postwar democracy; in this respect it supplements an earlier compilation, *Federal Price Control,* published in January, 1942. The volume on post-war plans also follows earlier compilations of materials in the same general field; the current collection is noteworthy for its emphasis upon broad, constructive thinking rather than upon detailed analyses of specific blueprints for a better world, although one brief section of the volume does compare the more widely known plans for political reorganization. In addition to the usual complete bibliography this volume is of special merit because it also includes an

annotated list of organizations currently engaged in postwar planning.

J. JEFFERY AUER, *Oberlin College*

Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms. Springfield: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1942; pp. 908. $3.50 (with thumb index, $4.00).

One of the problems of every public speaking instructor is to interest his students in the long-term job of learning to use words that are vivid and precise. In order to encourage the study of words after the public speaking class is over, this reviewer for many years has urged his students to invest in a "ten dollar" personal reference library. Among the titles recommended for this ten dollar library are: (1) a dictionary, such as *Webster's Collegiate* ($4.00) or Funk and Wagnalls' *College Standard* ($3.50, $4.00); an edition of *Roget's Thesaurus* (Grosset and Dunlap, $1.25; Garden City, $1.49, $2.98); and (3) a work on synonyms, such as Crabb's (Grosset and Dunlap, $1.50), Fernald's (Funk and Wagnalls, $2.25), or Allen's (Harper, $3.00). A new candidate for this last group is the new *Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms,* the subject of this review.

The book has many strong features. It opens with a survey of the history of English synonymy, which gives an account of the principal synonymists, and, of still greater significance, a comprehensive discussion of the many problems confronting them. But the treatment of the words themselves especially commands the reader's attention. The groupings, definitions, and discriminations are clear and helpful. The entries are grouped according to synonyms, analogous words ("near-synonyms"), antonyms, and contrasted words ("near-antonyms"). The definitions have a precision of statement that may be expected from a group of editors who live with words morning, noon, and night. The discriminations are illuminated not only by carefully worded expository statements, but by selected quotations. The quotations come, not only from Addison, the Bible, Shakespeare, Arnold, Macaulay, and Ruskin, but also from F.P.A., Van Wyck Brooks, Winston Churchill, Irvin S. Cobb, John Gunther, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Alfred E. Smith, Dorothy Thompson, and other contemporary writers and speakers, and from a number of periodicals including the *Saturday Review of Literature, School and Society,* and *Time.* The size of the work (908 pages) shows something of the number of entries and the general thoroughness of treatment.

Every speaker should have a copy of this book.

LOREN D. REID, *Syracuse University*

The Extempore Speech. By EARL W. WELLS and PAUL X. KNOLL. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1942; pp. 362, $2.50.

The Extempore Speech is a public speaking textbook based on sound and universally accepted principles. The primary emphasis is on content, with only secondary attention given to problems of delivery. The authors feel that what a speaker says is much more important than how he says it.

The units of the book are arranged in the approximate order in which a speaker would come to them in the process of preparing for a speaking engagement. Attention is given to audience analysis and the adaptation of the speech to the audience. The material on organization of the speech is especially good —probably one of the best treatments of organization available. The chapters on the introduction, the conclusion, and language are well supported with illustrative material drawn, for the most part, from contemporary speeches. The addition of more illustrative material of a similar nature to that in the chapter on "substance," the inclusion of more annotation in the chapter on sources of material, and the general amplification of the units dealing with the choice and use of speech materials would add to the value of the book.

Included at the end of each chapter are ten or more questions covering the content of the unit, seven or eight suggested exercises, and a short list of references to other speech texts. The book does not contain selections for practice, but this is to be expected since only 56 of the 362 pages deal with delivery. The format is excellent, with well-planned headings and subheadings. There is an adequate index and a detailed table of contents. A glance at the latter will convince the reader of the sound framework around which the book is built.

The title of the book may be misleading. The terms "impromptu" and "extempore" are still used somewhat loosely by many teachers. There is the danger, therefore, that some may dismiss this work lightly on the theory that it deals mainly with the hasty, unprepared speech. Nor should teachers think the book narrow because the title refers to one particular type of speech preparation. *The Extempore Speech* is based on those principles of speech development which

are the only ones now generally accepted by teachers of public speaking.

All in all, this reviewer finds *The Extempore Speech* a good, usable text, very well suited for a beginning course in public speaking in which the major interest is centered on content.

ORVILLE A. HITCHCOCK, *University of Akron*

Essentials of Parliamentary Procedure. By J. JEFFERY AUER. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1942; pp. 41. $.45.

The second edition of this book has the same purpose as did the first: to simplify parliamentary procedure to the bare essentials so that the layman can preside over a meeting or participate in the affairs of a parliamentary group with efficiency. Clear exposition in simple language results in the achievement of the purpose.

The book is divided into three parts: a step-by-step unfolding of the procedure of a "typical" meeting; a consideration of special motions; a discussion of precedence.

The second edition represents a substantial improvement over the first. Added are an index and sections on "procedures in elections," "parliamentary inquiry," and "request for information." Several inaccuracies of the first edition have been corrected, and some sections, notably the one on "rescind," have been amplified and vitalized. Brevity, however, in the treatment of certain motions continues to be sketchiness. Omitted entirely are "division of assembly" and "division of the question"; and "call for the orders of the day" deals only with special orders. To the reviewer, these procedures seem sufficiently useful to demand inclusion, even in a book that aims at brevity and simplicity.

That this paper-bound volume contributes anything to scholarship in parliamentary procedure no one would claim. Auer apparently has done no more than write a simplification of Robert's *Rules of Order*, which itself is a secondary source. That he has written briefly, simply, and clearly, however, is true; and, in so doing, he has achieved a practical purpose.

WAYNE N. THOMPSON, *The American University*

Poems of Fun and Fancy. By EDITH MARTHA DEPLITCH. Boston: Expression Company, 1942; pp. 75. $1.25.

These poems by Edith Martha Deplitch, teacher of primary grades in the Public Schools of Fall River, Massachusetts, are "for the little folks," to use the author's words, and are intended by her to aid in improving the speech of small children. There is much in the fifty-seven original verses which will do just that, for it is inevitable that sluggish tongues and lazy lips must respond to such refrains as:

A-Rat-a-tat-tat
A-Rat-a-tat-tat;

Toot-tle te too, Toot-tle te too,
Toot, toot, toot, toot, Toot-tle te too;

Hip-pi-ty, Hop-pi-ty, what a day,
Jump and run, it's Spring today;

La, lu, li, lu, lilly-loo, lay,
La, lu, li, lu, lilly-loo, lay.

and other similar phonetic combinations. There is also some delightful and fresh imagery used to stimulate creative expression in children and enrich their appreciation of the world in which they live and play.

This one suggestion might be offered, however. If, as the author writes, "it is the hope that this book of verse be placed in the hands of the children," a number of words would need to be changed. The following words, for example, would not fall within the controlled reading vocabulary of "the little folks": *wondrous, dolefully, sturdy, rakish, askew, madcap, serenade, lilting, bedecked, array, fabrication observation, civil strife, curtsey blithesome roundelay, minx*. The child's vocabulary may be enriched through introducing these words to him, or he may already have an understanding of some of them, but they are beyond the reading vocabulary of the primary grades.

The verses are arranged for choral speaking, encouraging children to speak with a group until shyness, timidity, and poor articulation have yielded to better speech and easier emotional adjustment. Along with other sane writers and teachers of choral speech, Miss Deplitch in her advice to teachers, says: "Do not strive for perfection, since this means dull drill and drudgery that takes away all the spontaneity and enjoyment from the poem, leaving it a flat and uninteresting recital of words which defeats the purpose of choral speaking and destroys its charm."

Teachers who are looking for new material to aid in improving the speech of their small pupils will welcome *Poems of Fun and Fancy*.

LOUISE ABNEY, *Kansas City Junior and Teachers College*

American Speech. By WILHELMINA G. HEDDE and WILLIAM NORWOOD BRIGANCE. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1942; pp. xi + 596. $1.80.

American Speech is designed to be an adequate text for large or small high schools, "whether the length of the speech course be limited to one semester or extended to four. . . ." It would also seem that the authors have successfully attempted to make their book as valuable to the teacher untrained in speech as it is to the teacher with an adequate academic background.

A book of such flexibility is necessarily divided into several sections. Part I, "Everyday Speech in a Democracy," begins with an admirable exposition of what the term "speech" connotes to most of its teachers today. The chapters "Everyday Conversation" and "Special Types of Conversation" (sales talks, interviews, etc.) because of their style, their interesting typographical design, and their well-chosen photographs are calculated to capture and hold adolescent attention. Chapters on group discussion and parliamentary procedure—two skills whose importance is being increasingly recognized hourly—close Part I.

Part II, "Communicating Thought" does much to undermine the excellent impression made by Part I. One can scarcely quarrel with the ideas presented in Chapter VI, "Talking with the Body," but they are expressed in such summary that they would probably convey little meaning to the novice. Chapter VII, "Using the Voice," is condensed to the point of vagueness, and for the study of intonation introduces a system which is confusing at best. An adequate catalog of the sins of Chapter VIII, "Our American Pronunciation," would be much longer than the chapter itself. Chapter VIII begins with several graphic illustrations which admirably demonstrate the utter stupidity of English spelling. In a later section subtitled "The Sounds of American Speech" is this amazing statement: "diacritical markings . . . are the simplest possible method of indicating pronunciations." True, the IPA is presented for the inspection of the student—but as a curiosity, not as a practical tool. Nor is it given in its latest form: [ɪ] is used in place of [ɚ], and a close inspection has not revealed the presence of [ɜ]. The exercises for ridding the student of substandard speech are based chiefly on the errors of General American, and ignore to a large extent Southern and Eastern speech.

Part III, "Original Speaking," continues the excellences of the first section. Here the principles of composition and delivery of extemporaneous speeches are well set down. It is to be hoped, but scarcely to be expected, that Chapter XII, "Debate," will do much to halt some of the excesses that are being committed in the name of forensics.

From time to time the ghost of elocution stirs faintly in Part IV, "Interpretation," but not enough to make itself a menace. Chapter XVI, "Reading and Speaking in Chorus" should be a life-saver to teachers who have wanted verse-choirs, but who have hesitated to experiment without the moral backing of a printed guide.

Part V, "Dramatics," suggests an acquaintanceship of the stage through books—and through not all of the best of them, at that. Chapters XXIII and XXIV—"Playwriting" and "Puppets," respectively, make both activities seem like charming bits of busy-work well suited to while away an idle hour or so.

If the faults of *American Speech* seem to be emphasized, it is because most of the book is so excellent that its flaws stand out in high relief. As a text for public speaking and similar courses, *American Speech* is probably unsurpassed in the secondary level. For courses in speech improvement or drama, however, it is inadequate.

HENRY L. MUELLER, *Syracuse University*

Rehearsal. By MIRIAM A. FRANKLIN. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942; pp. 447. $4.00.

As far as it is possible to put the fundamental principles of that elusive art—acting—into textbook form, Miss Franklin has achieved a remarkable task. Written simply and directly, it will be intelligible to high school and college student alike. But it must be used by the teacher with care and imagination.

It is inevitable that such a book should place great emphasis on outward form. But too much of such study for the beginning actor can result in surface efficiency without inner conviction. To the teacher, however, who bears this in mind, *Rehearsal* should prove of great supplementary assistance in the classroom and in assigning work for outside practice.

Especially valuable are those parts of the book in which Miss Franklin's terse explanations of stage mechanics are enriched with illustrations, diagrams, and photographs of productions in schools all over the country.

The diagrams and illustrations, particularly, help drive home her points with great visual as well as mental impact. This reviewer would like to see more of these and regrets that the photographs, shrewdly selected and explained by the author, are, for the most part, poorly reproduced.

The chapters entitled "Pointing Up," "Movement and Business," "Freeing the Body," and "Speak the Speech," succeed especially well in clarifying certain fundamental technical phases of acting. In addition, numerous well selected exercises and excerpts from current modern plays and classic dramas follow each step as it is presented and give the student immediate concrete experience.

The inclusion of a glossary of stage terms, in particular, and the chapter entitled "Abbreviated Backgrounds" should be helpful in initiating the beginner into the language and atmosphere of the theatre. But in "Abbreviated Backgrounds," facts are sometimes stated too concisely or not selected with sufficient discrimination to be of much value. Especially is this true in the listing of significant facts in the lives and achievements of outstanding actors.

Altogether, *Rehearsal* succeeds more than any other book of its kind that has come to the attention of this reviewer in devising methods and supplying materials for the teaching of the mechanical aspects of acting.

VALENTINE WINDT, *University of Michigan*

The Psychology of Persuasive Speech. By ROBERT T. OLIVER. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1942; pp. 389. $2.75.

Part I (24 pages) sets forth the general view that persuasion is not concerned with the formulation of ideas but with the process of getting them accepted, and that this process is fundamentally a matter of motivation. Part II (124 pages) consists in a discussion of four underlying factors which govern the reaction of an audience to a speaker: self-interest; social pressure; the personality of the speaker and the physical setting of the occasion; and barriers to persuasion such as compensation, sterotyped thinking, and subconscious motivation. Part III (30 pages) discusses logical and emotional appeals, and rationalization as the three chief means through which motivation is achieved. In Part IV (85 pages) is a discussion of attention, suggestion, and common ground as techniques of persuasion. Part V (71 pages) considers some of the practical problems of persuasion in public speaking and in the interview. The appendix of the book contains five sample speeches for study and analysis.

The foregoing outline indicates the broad scope and purpose of this book. A full-fledged discourse on the subject of the psychology of persuasion usually seems to lead into a rather discursive consideration of human nature as a whole. This book is no exception to the rule and contains material from general, social, and abnormal psychology, and logic, to mention only a few of the related disciplines. Despite the broad selection of material, the author maintains a fairly consistent point of view centering about motivation. At times, however, the relation of subject matter to central theme seems strained and vague. One wonders what practical import there is in studies of the retention of nonsense syllables. Lund's famous correlation of .80 between belief and desire seems to be unqualifiedly accepted by the author as evidence that the wish is the genesis of belief. Millson's study is quoted as evidence of the superior effectiveness of emotional speaking despite Monroe's subsequent analysis of the same data showing that the alleged differences were not statistically significant. These and other points of criticism on the handling of the material may occur to the reader of this book. The author has, however, accumulated a mass of material accompanied by a large bibliography, both of which should be useful in advanced courses on persuasion, particularly for students who have had courses in general psychology.

HOWARD GILKINSON,
University of Minnesota

The Speech Teacher and Competition. By ROY BEDICHEK and F. L. WINSHIP. Austin: The University of Texas Publication, 1941; pp. 131. 25 cents.

The Speech Teachers and Competition is a welcome addition to the literature of the speech field. The book is divided into two parts. Part I, which is written by Professor Bedichek, is the most complete discussion of the historical background as well as the social significance of speech contests that has been published. It lists all of the objections that have been made to contests and gives all of the answers. In this part the biological basis of competition is fully discussed. This

is followed by a review of the historical development of school contests in general. The author has tactfully, but completely, disposed of those speech men and administrators who have attempted to take the curse out of contests by substituting "easy competitions or disguised or diluted competitions" or "phony contests in which everybody wins."

The importance of a planned program of competition for schools is emphasized. The point is stressed that lack of a planned program does not eliminate competition—it merely permits this competition to assume unwholesome and antisocial forms. Professor Bedichek then discusses the development of three of the more common types of speech contests. These are declamation, extempore speech and one-act plays. This part of the book closes with an answer to those who oppose speech contests because they cannot be judged objectively and therefore frequently result in apparent injustices. "Consider a misjudging as an experience that cannot be escaped in school life or in later life. Let such occasions serve as an inoculation against the common disease of emotional upsets induced by life's often tragic injustices."

In Part II of the book, Professor Winship discusses the production end of three contests—one-act plays, extempore speech and declamation. In discussing each, he demonstrates that he is on familiar ground. His advice is sound and should prove of value to both inexperienced and seasoned directors of these activities.

The entire book is good but the honest, comprehensive and competent defense of speech contests which it carries is superb.

ARTHUR SECORD,
University of Michigan

Poems for Playtime. By CARRIE RASMUSSEN. Boston: Expression Company, 1942; pp. 93. $1.25.

The development of an appreciation of poetry through bodily response in young children is the educational approach advocated by Miss Rasmussen in *Poems for Playtime*. The author presents the point of view that since bodily movements play an important part in the maturation of the child, these movements should be utilized in the early school grades to cultivate a rhythmic feeling or response in the reading of poetry and in creative dramatic play. She does not claim that this approach is the only way to develop an appreciation of poetry but states that it is an excellent way to begin.

Emphasis is given to the need for selecting poems with "vital life meanings" for children and not just poems which the teacher thinks the children should like. The book contains fifty-four original poems well written for the purposes indicated. The poems are classified into two groups: Rhythmic Action Poems and Dramatic Action Poems. In the first section, suggestions are given for appropriate rhythmic movement for each poem; recommendations are also made for the type of music which may accompany the reading of each poem. In the second section are presented ideas concerning types of dramatic play which may well grow out of the poems. Included among the materials is a list of poems by well-known authors which may be used for the development of rhythmic action, dramatic play, and choral speaking.

The illustrations are colorful, attractive, and should have a strong appeal to young children. The point of view here expressed is educationally sound; the directions for the use of the material are clear and definite. The book should be of value to the classroom teacher in the lower elementary school.

MAGDALENE KRAMER, *Teachers College, Columbia University*

University Debaters' Annual, 1941-42. Edited by EDITH M. PHELPS. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1942; pp. 459. $2.25.

Most criticism of debate would be unjustified if debaters came up to the standard set by many of the speeches in this volume. It includes six debates, two symposia, a panel discussion and a problem-solving discussion. With the exception of a debate on western hemisphere solidarity all are worthy of inclusion. The South is not adequately represented, and direct-clash debate is neglected.

Debates on the following topics are recorded: "The Federal Incorporation of Labor Unions," "A League of Nations," "Military Training," "A Federal Sales Tax," "Compulsory Saving," and "Western Hemisphere Solidarity." It would be difficult to select more timely or important subjects, and while the reviewer has no intention of rating the debates, he would like to call special attention to the one on "A Federal Sales Tax." The speakers demonstrate good use of material, great adaptability, close reasoning, and consequently, definite clashes. Novices and

even advanced debaters will profit from reading it.

The symposium on "The Failure of Colleges to Meet Student Needs" is probably of more general interest than anything else in the book. A little wordy in certain sections, it nevertheless represents controversy at its best. Cross-examination allows for the testing of argument in a more careful fashion than does any other device. It high-lights the weakness of the problem-solving discussion on "Post-War Reconstruction," or, in the words of the question, "What steps should the United States take now to cushion the post-war depression?" If the problem-solving technique allowed for debate on all of the solutions presented, the procedure would be of even greater value than its proponents claim, for the solutions would then be more adequately tested.

Of special value to those looking for background for the national college question of 1942-43 are the Iowa-Toronto debate on a "Reconstruction of the League of Nations," and the Pi Kappa Delta panel discussion on a "Federation of Democracies Based on the Churchill-Roosevelt Principles."

A symposium on "Freedom of Speech in Time of National Emergency" concludes a volume as up-to-date as the editorial page of today's newspaper.

UPTON PALMER, *Bowling Green State University*

Leadership Through Speech. By JOSEPH G. BRIN. New York: Harbinger House, 1942; pp. 140. $2.00.

The thesis of Dr. Brin's new book is that forceful speech is the right and duty of every citizen in a democracy. He minimizes theory and emphasizes the power of ideas and sincerity on the part of the speaker.

In the words of the author: "An earnest attempt is made to state, with such brevity and lucidity as are under command, the basic principles; to stress the oft-neglected psychological considerations that must guide the speaker in his endeavor to communicate effectively his (or her) ideas upon and philosophy of a given theme or situation. Formula or any thought of formula for the gaining of effect is intentionally skirted for emphasis upon spontaneity and, again, sincerity in platform speaking."

The book is evidently intended to give practical, common-sense suggestions to adults who have had little or no previous speech training. Some of Dr. Brin's suggestions are:

"There are few things more flattering to an audience than to feel that the speaker has personalized his speech expressly for it."

"While the chairman is introducing you, look about your audience smilingly; when you finally rise, a brief humorous anecdote will do much to put them *en rapport* with you. Your fate may depend upon your next few minutes. A good laugh, if you can elicit it, will ensure your success at the outset."

"One cannot picture passionate sincerity exemplified by a speaker in a rigid or frozen physical position. Nor can one effectively attune himself to thoughts of invective coming from lips parted in a Madonna smile."

"Use of slang is but an admission of the speaker's lack of vocabulary and the force to convey his ideas in 'Normal English.' But there are exceptions, of course."

The author opens the last chapter, The Conclusion, as follows: "I have almost a horror of rules. In the last analysis, you will always wind up by being yourself! If, in seeking to become a good speaker, you know thoroughly the *principles*, the *groundwork*, rules will take care of themselves."

The book includes both written and oral assignments on the various chapters.

LORETTA A. WAGNER, *Brooklyn College*

A CORRECTION

Professor Jon Eisenson of Brooklyn College writes the Book Review Editor as follows:

The *New Books* of October, 1942, issue of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH included my review of *Practice of Voice and Speech Therapy* by Froschels and Jellinek. The review, as it appears, indicates that the authors recommend the "chewing method" as a therapy for "voice and articulatory difficulties of both functional and organic origin, for stuttering and cluttering, and for aphasia."

Drs. Froschels and Jellinek *do not* in their text recommend the chewing method for aphasics. My statement to that effect is in error, and my remarks based upon that statement contained in the third from last paragraph of the review do not pertain. . . .

I regret the initial error. But my regrets are not enough! In fairness to Drs. Froschels and Jellinek, attention ought to be brought to the corrections I have indicated.

IN THE PERIODICALS

DORIS G. YOAKAM, *Editor*

RHETORIC, PUBLIC ADDRESS, AND RADIO

BELLAK, LEOPOLD, "The Nature of Slogans," *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXVII (October, 1942), 496-510.

The slogan holds a central position and an important place in propaganda. The effectiveness of the slogan, its definition, and its connection with the War are discussed in this article.

CHAMPLIN, CARROLL D., "The Educational Meaning of Morale," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, XXVIII (October, 1942), 473-479.

The mental alertness of the masses and their intelligent grasp of matters relating to local and national well-being are two influential factors in the status of morale of a people. Morale building may be strengthened by reviving interest in the features of history which stress patriotism.

CONNELY, WILLARD, "Americans Lecturing in England," *News Bulletin*, XVIII (November, 1942), 10-13.

Information that Americans are lecturing in England is nothing new, but the fact that Britons are asking for American lecturers is unique. The author of this article, who is Director of the American University Union, in London, adds that "England, going short on food, is going long on lectures."

EELLS, RICHARD S. F., "Public Opinion in American Statecraft," *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, VI (Fall, 1942), 391-410.

The author of this article undertakes an appraisal of the present role of public opinion, in light of the history of public opinion in the United States since 1787.

GOUDY, ELIZABETH, "Radio is Dynamite," *The Clearing House*, XVII (October, 1942), 71-75.

The importance of words is nowhere better illustrated than in the widespread power of the radio. Americans listen to the radio a total of one-hundred and twenty-six million hours per week, and are affected both in mind and heart. The radio should be used in the modern school to help maintain democratic living, and to establish listening literacy.

MCKENZIE, VERNON, "United Nations' Propaganda in the United States," *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, VI (Fall, 1942), 351-366.

The problem of control of propaganda activities assumes magnitude with the realization that there are more than forty "Free" movements and allied members of the United Nations now competing for the attention and support of public opinion in the United States.

MILLER, NEVILLE, "What Radio Broadcasting Means in the War Effort," *Proceedings of the I.R.E.*, XXX (October, 1942), 482.

The radio of today is taking the place of the First World War's four-minute speakers. At the present time the radio easily handles just as many, and perhaps more, campaigns of recruiting and for the sale of war bonds as did the campaign speakers of the last war. In addition to these are such campaigns as those for salvage and rubber.

PRICE, BYRON, "Governmental Censorship in War Time," *The American Political Science Review*, XXXVI (October, 1942), 837-849.

The author discusses briefly the history of censorship and the reaction of people toward it in past wars. He explains why censorship during war is necessary and adds that radio censorship is as necessary as any other type. Such seemingly innocent practices as mentioning a name on a man-on-the-street program, or asking for a certain song to be sung for an individual on a musical program may turn out to be cleverly hidden signals for the enemy.

DRAMA AND INTERPRETATION

BERSWANGER, GEORGE, "Soviet Russia at War," *Theatre Arts,* XXVI (November, 1942), 682-689.

The Russian theatre is proving that it can "carry on" and that it can assume a major role during war time. Theatre "brigades" perform for Red Army men as they enter and leave the battle front. Troupes of players "reinforce the anger, courage and faith that has built the Russian wall of defense" by traveling to act for Russians in the deepest recesses of the home front.

CLARK, MRS. BESSIE, "Let's Have a Marionette Show," *Occupational Therapy and Rehabilitation,* XXI (October, 1942), 297-299.

Drama occupies an important place in occupational therapy. Patients find in hospital dramatic and marionette shows a helpful avenue for releasing pent-up emotions.

EARNEST, ERNEST, "Poets in Overalls," *The Virginia Quarterly Review,* XVIII (Autumn, 1942), 518-529.

The layman's awe of machinery appears in much contemporary writing. Poets have adopted the machine, but they seem to be overly impressed with the showy and noisy aspects of mechanical things.

ERSKINE, JOHN, "The Neglected Art of Cursing," *The American Mercury,* LV (November, 1942), 564-569.

The art of cursing, which is not to be confused with the practice of profanity, is one half of the art of poetry. Mr. Erskine believes that we need a report of "feelings" in the presence of the present tyranny. Poets must feel strongly if they are to make themselves heard above the noise of battle. All poetry "should be passionate and should carry the conviction of truthful portraiture; if, nowadays, poetry is low-temperatured and vague, one explanation may be that our poets neglect the art of cursing. Such neglect has never occurred in days of greatness."

GRACE, WILLIAM J., "The Cosmic Sense in Shakesperean Tragedy," *Sewanee Review,* L (October-December, 1942), 433-445.

This article presents a discussion of Shakespeare's conception of tragedy and attempts to explain the reasons for his great understanding of evil, sin and suffering.

JONES, DOROTHY B., "Quantitative Analysis of Motion Picture Content," *The Public Opinion Quarterly,* VI (Fall, 1942), 411-428.

American moviegoers are influenced "for good or bad" by the movies. The author of this article attempts to analyze this influence and presents the results of an experimental study designed "to provide an instrument capable of measuring with scientific exactness the content of each motion picture as it is released."

MARSAN, CLAUDE, "The Street . . . Offers Free Educational Drama," *The Players Magazine, XIX* (October, 1942), 9-10, 30.

The Street Educational Organizations for Civilian Morale and Defense, a non-governmental project, conducted nationally on a nonprofit basis, operates to educate, raise morale and teach civilian defense through the presentation of street shows. Starting in 1940, with one open truck for a stage, and practically no equipment, the organization now has 22 groups at work, and expects in another year to have 200.

MERSAND, JOSEPH, "The Drama in National Defense," *The Players Magazine,* XIX (October, 1942), 6, 30.

Drama can become a potent instrument for communicating and strengthening ways of life. It is being used in totalitarian countries. In America there stand in the way such problems as those of finding plays that will communicate the American Way of life in a manner which will aid the war effort, and those of finding opportunities for enabling students to see them.

MERSAND, JOSEPH, "Plays of American Democracy," *The Players Magazine,* XIX (November, 1942), 9-10, 17.

If drama is to play its rightful role in building civilian morale, directors must first gain acquaintance with plays that exemplify the American Way of life. A classified list of such plays is presented for consideration.

SPINGARN, J. E., "Politics and the Poet," *The Atlantic Monthly,* CLXX (November, 1942), 73-78.

That poetry and politics are two of the "noblest occupations of men," and that the fundamental faith underlying both should be love of country is emphasized by the au-

thor in the fourth of a series of six lectures given in the New School for Social Research, New York, in 1931. The "great bane of our literature in the last few years is that it has not had a sense of political reality." Poets have lost touch with man's noblest practical work—the art of government.

STRICKLAND, F. COWLES, "Should Universities Sponsor Professional Schools for the Theatre?" *The Players Magazine*, XIX (October, 1942), 11-12, 19-20.

The author explains the aims and goals of the university theatre, and justifies the accusation that the university does not produce many professional actors.

WADE, ROBERT J., "Neo-Perspectivism," *The Players Magazine*, XIX (November, 1942), 7-8, 17.

The use of the neo-perspective style in scene design is discussed in this article, with especial attention being given to the problems of the non-professional theatre.

SPEECH SCIENCE

BRUNNER, HANS, "Encephalography in Otogenic and Rhinogenic Complications," *The Laryngoscope*, LII (October, 1942), 768-783.

Methods in encephalography are discussed for the purpose of inciting interest. The author emphasizes his belief that encephalography will increase the otolaryngologist's "practical and theoretical knowledge of various affections of the brain associated with diseases of the ear and nose."

DESOTO, CLINTON B., "How Recordings are Made," *Q S T*, XXVI (October, 1942), 54-59, 114, 116, 118.

As Part IV of a series of articles on recording, this article deals with the playback, and includes information on types of pick-ups, frequency response, needle force, pick-up arm and turntable and motor drive.

FAIRBANKS, GRANT, "An Acoustical Study of the Pitch of Infant Hunger Wails," *Child Development*, XIII (September, 1942), 227-232.

Results of the study of changes in infant pitch in monthly recordings of experimentally induced hunger wails are presented in this article.

FAY, PAUL J., and WARREN C. MIDDLETON, "Measurement of the Persuasiveness of the Transcribed Voice," *The Journal of Psychology*, XIV (October, 1942), 259-267.

Three experiments performed in the DePauw University Laboratory for Research on the Psychological Problems of Radio help to establish knowledge that voice quality is a definite factor in persuasiveness. Voices of individuals differ in degrees of convincingness even when the persons are reading material equated for belief. If proper controls are exercised, the measurements of the persuasiveness of voices are "statistically reliable."

FREEMAN, MAX J., "A Study of Relationship in Motor Learning," *The Journal of Psychology, XIV* (October, 1942), 217-225.

The experiment under discussion tends to support Seashore's claim that "the measurement of several independent skills leads to the conclusion of favoring a theory of specific skills rather than a theory of general motor ability."

GOODMAN, JACK L., "Changes in Size and Contour of Thorax During First Postnatal Week," *American Journal of Diseases of Children," LXIV* (October, 1942), 674-679.

Thoracic measurements of sixty-eight newborn infants were studied and the results as presented in this article "do not support the conclusion that with the establishment of respiration the anteroposterior diameter of the thorax tends to exceed the transverse diameter."

HALSTED, THOMAS H., and FREDERICK M. GROSSMAN, "Modern Aspects of the Hearing Aid Problem," *New York State Journal of Medicine*, XLII (October 15, 1942), 1944-1950.

A mechanical description of the modern hearing aid is presented, and various diagnostic tests used in prescribing the aid are delineated.

HANAWALT, NELSON G., "The Role of the Upper and Lower Parts of the Face as a Basis for Judging Facial Expressions: I. In Painting and Sculpture," *The Journal*

of General Psychology, XXVII (October, 1942), 331-346.

A number of pictures of paintings and sculptorings were presented to a small group of college students in an attempt to determine how facial expressions are recognized. The details of the experiment and of its results are given in this article.

HERCKMANS, ALFRED, "A New Telephone Set for the Hard of Hearing," *Bell Laboratories Record,* XXI (October, 1942), 45-48.

A new telephone amplifying set for the hard-of-hearing permits all of the amplifying equipment with the exception of a small battery to be placed in the base of the telephone. Two switchhook plungers connect and disconnect the amplifier.

HUDDLESTON, O. LEONARD, and ADALINE BULLEN, "Recent Studies in the Physiology of Speech Production," *Archives of Physical Therapy,* XXIII (October, 1942), 591-597.

The underlying principles of speech production are described for the physiotherapist. Experiments in attempting to follow the moment by moment sequence of events that takes place in the phonatory organs during speech are described.

HUGHSON, WALTER, and EVA THOMPSON, "Correlation of Hearing Acuity for Speech with Discrete Frequency Audiograms," *Archives of Otolaryngology,* XXXVI (October, 1942), 526-540.

A three year study endeavoring to correlate audiograms of impaired hearing with actual speech hearing disability, undertaken in the Otological Research Laboratory, Abington Memorial Hospital, Pennsylvania, yields promising results.

JOHNSON, WENDELL, and ARTHUR KING, "An Angle Board and Hand Usage Study of Stutterers and Non-Stutterers," *Journal of Experimental Psychology,* XXXI (October, 1942), 293-311.

The authors discuss analytically the procedure involved in an attempt to compare young adult stutterers and non-stutterers in terms of scores on the Iowa simultaneous writing angle board test for handedness, and in terms of hand usage scores.

LYNN, R. A., "Factors Contributing to Good Recording," *Radio-Craft,* XIV (October, 1942), 28-29, 56.

The goal in recording is to produce facsimiles of original programs. Accuracy of recording is discussed in this article, with emphasis on the operating characteristics of the disc, the recording and the reproducing units.

MASON, W. P., and I. E. FAIR, "A New Direct Crystal-Controlled Oscillator with Ultra-Short-Wave Frequencies," *Proceedings of the I.R.E.,* XXX (October, 1942), 464-472.

The oscillator described in this article utilizes a mechanical harmonic of an AT or BT crystal, and obtains frequencies as high as three hundred megacycles.

READ, OLIVER, "A Versatile Recorder for Military and Civilian Use," *Radio News,* XXVIII (October, 1942), 14-17, 56.

Construction steps in building a portable recording machine are outlined in this article.

SCHWAB, ROBERT S., and RICHARD CARTER, "Electroencephalography in Relation to Otology," *The Laryngoscope,* LII (October, 1942), 757-767.

The authors report on electroencephalograms of normal and abnormal brains, and the results of five hundred localizations in intracranial lesions.

SEASHORE, HAROLD G., "Some Relationships of Fine and Gross Motor Abilities," *The Research Quarterly,* XIII (October, 1942), 259-274.

Studies concerned with the interrelation of fine and gross motor abilities lead to the conclusion that no overall or "general" positive dependence or interrelatedness of fine and gross motor abilities has been discovered.

PHONETICS AND SPEECH USAGE

BELLAFIORE, JOSEPH, "Wartime Vocabulary," *Youth Leaders Digest,* V (November, 1942), 66-72.

The author believes that such a wartime vocabulary list as he presents in this article contains "the key to current affairs." It helps to record history in the making by systematizing words that depict the news.

COOKE, JEAN V., "Don't Take Your Word for It," *The Journal of Pediatrics*, XXI (September, 1942), 386-391.

A physician criticizes the pronunciation habits of the medical profession, and makes a plea for greater respect among doctors for the accepted general usage of words in their lecturing and public speaking.

KIMMERLE, MARJORIE M., "Norwegian-American Surnames in Transition," *American Speech*, XVII (October, 1942), 158-165.

A study of the pronunciation of forty-five villagers reveals to what extent there remains a usage of Norwegian sounds in Deerfield, Wisconsin.

MARSHALL, M. V., and R. H. PHILLIPS, "The Effect of Bi-Lingualism on College Grades," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVI (October, 1942), 131-132.

That bilingualism does not affect success in college work is the conclusion of the author of this article after a study of eighty students, half of whom spoke two languages.

SMITH, GRACE PARTRIDGE, "Speech Currents in 'Egypt,'" *American Speech*, XVII (October, 1942), 169-173.

The area of Southern Illinois nicknamed "Egypt" has many idiosyncrasies of word usage.

TRAGER, GEORGE L., "The Phoneme 'T': A Study in Theory and Method," *American Speech*, XVII (October, 1942), 144-148.

A phonemic analysis of the complex "T" is presented in this article.

WALSH, CHAD, "The Verb System of Basic English," *American Speech*, XVII (October, 1942), 137-143.

The author makes a careful analysis of the verbs and verbal phrases of Basic English.

WORBOIS, G. M., "Language Development of Children in Two Different Rural Environments," *Child Development*, XIII (September, 1942), 175-180.

The language abilities of children found in a consolidated school and in a one room rural school were compared by means of testing with the Verbal Effectiveness Test, the Stanford-Binet Vocabulary and the Iowa-Every Pupil Tests, and the results are presented in this article.

PSYCHOLOGY AND PATHOLOGY OF SPEECH

BENDER, LAURETTA, and JOHN FROSCH, "Children's Reactions to the War," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XII (October, 1942), 571-586.

A study of reactions to the War in children between seven and thirteen years of age reveals that it has exerted an influence on play and phantasy life but not on the creation of anxieties.

BEVERLY, BERT I., "Anxieties of Children: Their Causes and Implications," *American Journal of Diseases of Children*, LXIV (October, 1942), 585-593.

The causes of mental ill health may be seen in an analysis of the nine cases of extreme anxiety neurosis under review, and the essentials of mental health easily learned.

COTTRELL, LEONARD S., "The Adjustment of the Individual to His Age and Sex Roles," *American Sociological Review*, VII (October, 1942), 617-620.

The author sets out to find "clues toward a more precise diagnosis of the cause of frustration in our American society."

CROWE, SAMUEL J., *et. al.*, "Impaired Hearing in School Children," *The Laryngoscope*, LII (October, 1942), 790-804.

Practical suggestions are given for procedures that help prevent deafness.

CUNNINGHAM, JAMES M., "The Anti-Social Child," *Connecticut State Medical Journal*, VI (November, 1942), 856-861.

Antisocial behavior must be defined in terms of the social order of which the child is a member. The child himself must be studied and the etiology of his behavior must be explained if rehabilitation is to ensue.

DUNHAM, H. WARREN, "War and Personality Disorganization," *The American Journal of Sociology*, XLVIII (November, 1942), 387-397.

An attempt is made, on the basis of current observations, to show the manner in which different segments of our population are reacting psychologically to the War.

GUILDER, RUTH P., "Hearing Handicaps in Children of Today: Importance of Clinic Programs for their Early Study and Remedial Guidance," *The New England Journal of Medicine*, CCXXVII (October 22, 1942), 619-624.

The majority of children with hearing handicaps are potentially normal, if they are found early and if they are adequately rehabilitated. Better hearing is now a possibility for most of these children, and because of this there is a chance for better speech, better language and an equal opportunity for progress in school and for happiness in and out of school.

HAMILTON, DONALD M., *et. al.*, "Hospital Treatment of Patients with Psychoneurotic Disorders," *The American Journal of Psychiatry*, XCIX (September, 1942), 243-247.

Causal factors and family background are discussed in this article, which analyzes one-hundred psychoneurotic women patients admitted to the Westchester Division of New York Hospital between 1927 and 1937.

HAMRICK, D. W., "Management of Middle Ear Infections," *The Mississippi Doctor*, XX (September, 1942), 166-169.

Practical observations, gleaned from fifteen years of experience, form the content of this article dealing with the symptoms and treatment of middle ear infections.

HENSCHEL, AUSTIN, "Diet and Muscular Fatigue," *The Research Quarterly*, XIII (October, 1942), 280-285.

There is little evidence that special foods give special benefits. Extra supplies of vitamins have "no influence on physical ability, resistance to fatigue, or the rate of recovery from severe muscular work."

HILL, FREDERICK T., "The Changing Conception of the Management of Chronic Progressive Deafness," *The Annals of Otology, Rhinology and Laryngology*, LI (September, 1942), 653-661.

To cure deafness is impossible. Prevention is the best possible therapy; correction by circumvention, amplification or rehabilitation are important aids. The treatment must fit the individual patient.

HIMLER, LEONARD E., and THEOPHILE RAPHAEL, "Manic-Depressive Psychoses Among College Students," *The American Journal of Psychiatry*, XCIX (September, 1942), 188-193.

The authors analyze reports of seventy-nine cases of manic-depressive psychosis found among students at the University of Michigan between 1930 and 1941.

JEFFERSON, GEOFFREY, "The Acute Head Injury as a Neurological Problem, "*Glasgow Medical Journal*, CXXXVIII (September, 1942), 77-95.

The nature of concussion, compression and unconsciousness are discussed in this article, and one-hundred cases of head injury are analyzed.

KOCH, HELEN L., "A Factor Analysis of Some Measures of the Behavior of Preschool Children," *The Journal of General Psychology*, XXVII (October, 1942), 257-287.

A study of forty-six individuals reveals social and behavior traits among children, and uncovers patterns of defense mechanisms, their relative frequency, and the relation between the choice of pattern and "the basic dimensions of personality."

KOS, C. M., "Otolaryngologic Problems in Aviation," *Modern Medicine*, X (October, 1942), 78-79.

The author discusses the involvements of aero-otitis media, aero-sinusitis, and air sickness.

LURIE, M. H., "The Degeneration and Absorption of the Organ of Corti in Animals," *The Annals of Otology, Rhinology and Laryngology*, LI (September, 1942), 712-717.

The process of the dissolving of chemical constituents of cells into the fluid of the scala media has been observed in experiments with large numbers of animals. The degenerative action progresses for long periods of time after the actual injury has occurred.

MCGIBBON, JOHN E. G., "The Nature of the Valvular Action (Passive Opening) of the Eustachian Tube in Relation to Changes of Atmospheric Pressure and to Aviation Pressure Deafness," *The Journal of Laryngology and Otology*, LVII (July, 1942), 344-350.

Early treatment of eustachian tube involvements in atmospheric pressure changes is emphasized in this article, and included is an explanation of what happens to the eustachian tube during the ascent and descent of the airplane.

MELTZER, PHILIP E., "Hearing in Chronic Otitis Media," *The Annals of Otology, Rhinology and Laryngology*, LI (September, 1942), 727-736.

A physician pleads with members of his profession to concern themselves with the preservation of hearing as well as with the mere stopping of the discharge in cases of chronic suppurative otitis media.

MOORE, MERRILL, "The Inner World of the Child," *The Mississippi Doctor*, XX (October, 1942), 203-204.

The inner world of the child is sympathetically described by a physician. If this world is to be harmonious and well organized, adults must try to understand children in terms of the children's world, and they must give to children truth, helpful information and fair play.

MUELLER, WERNER, "The Clinical Examination of the Hard of Hearing," *The Annals of Otology, Rhinology and Laryngology*, LI (September, 1942), 756-760.

This article describes the procedures carried out in the otolaryngological examination of more than five hundred patients at the Massachusetts Eye and Ear Infirmary.

PENTECOST, R. S., "Some Observations on Ear, Nose and Throat Disabilities Associated with Aviation," *The Canadian Medical Association Journal*, XLVII (October, 1942), 314-318.

The author tells about cases of aviators reporting to the Christie Street Hospital in Toronto, with ear, nose and throat problems.

PETERSON, C. H., and MARION L. FAEGRE, "Note on the Measurement of the Results of Attitude Education: An Area of Needed Research," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXIII (September, 1942), 469-470.

There is a definite need for work in the measurement of attitudes, because the development of attitudes is a legitimate function of the public schools.

PIGNATARO, FRANK P., "Experiences in Military Psychiatry," *The Military Surgeon*, XCI (October, 1942), 453-460.

At the present time psychiatrists exert their greatest service in weeding out the unfit before and during military service.

PORTERFIELD, AUSTIN L., "The Problem of Response to Personality Frustration: A Concrete Example," *Social Forces*, XXI (October, 1942), 75-81.

Frustration may reveal itself in aggression, day dreaming or other manifestations. The nature of barriers and their meaning to an individual must be understood before an insight to personality may be gained. The building of substitute goals is important in treatment.

SHILLING, CHARLES W., and IRA A. EVERLEY, "Auditory Acuity Among Submarine Personnel," *United States Naval Medical Bulletin*, XL (October, 1942), 938-947.

This article, fourth of a series on the problem of hearing, discusses the involvements of hearing loss caused by exposure to heavy gunfire.

SIMPSON, R. R., "Notes on Some Common Disorders of the Ear, Nose and Throat," *Journal of the Royal Army Medical Corps*, LXXIX (September, 1942), 148-152.

Information is given to medical officers of Army Field Units upon treatment of ear, nose and throat cases.

SOLANDT, D. Y., and J. W. MAGLADERY, "A Comparison of Effects of Upper and Lower Motor Neurone Lesions on Skeletal Muscle," *Journal of Neurophysiology*, V (September, 1942), 373-380.

The author presents material upon the degeneration procedure of the gastrocnemius-solus group of muscles following upper or lower motor neurone lesions.

VOELKER, CHARLES H., "A New Therapy for Spasmophemia on Gestalt Principles," *Archives of Pediatrics*, LIX (October, 1942), 657-662.

Positive results have been found in the treatment of sixty-six stutterers with a new therapeutic technique described in this article.

VOELKER, CHARLES H., "Speech Correction and National Defense: Neuropathic Speech

Disorders," *The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry,* XII (October, 1942), 633-641.

The author describes neuropathic speech disorders associated with and evolving from the war, and considers the possibilities of the rehabilitation of aphasic, spastic, choreatic, scanning and bulbar speech.

SPEECH PEDAGOGY

BOSLEY, W. ELVIS, "Objectionable Objectivity in Testing Crippled Children," *Journal of Exceptional Children,* IX (October, 1942), 7-10.

Too often spastics and children affected with cerebral palsy or central sensory and motor involvements, are judged hastily if the scores on intelligence tests are not interpreted cautiously, and in terms of individual variances.

COHEN, ROSE N., "Approaching the Air Age Through English, *Education,* LXIII (October, 1942), 101-104.

English instruction must be streamlined if it is to be kept up to date. Units in aviation can be used to advantage.

MATHEWSON, ANGELL, "Tell Them You are Saying It," *The English Journal,* XXX (October, 1942), 614-616.

According to the author of this article, the ideal approach to the teaching of public speaking consists of four steps: "saturation, excitation, organization, and articulation."

MILLS, MARY M., "Voice and Rhythm in the Primary Grades of the New Jersey School for the Deaf," *American Annals of the Deaf,* LXXXVII (September, 1942), 331-341.

Drills and exercises are included in this article for hard-of-hearing and deaf students from kindergarten through the fifth school year.

NORRIS, DONALD C., "Physically Handicapped Persons and Employment," *The British Journal of Physical Medicine and Industrial Hygiene,* V (September-October, 1942), 130-133.

It is the duty of the industrial medical officer to give vocational guidance to physically handicapped persons. Often these people possess "a residual learning capacity which is quite enough to enable them to compete on equal terms with normal workers in a suitable occupation."

NUMBERS, MARY E., "Learning to Hear," *The Volta Review,* XLIV (October, 1942), 557-558, 600-601.

Techniques and exercises are given for educating "remnants of hearing."

PUGH, EUNICE ACHESON, "The Work of the Boston Guild for the Hard of Hearing," *The New England Journal of Medicine,* CCXXVII (October, 1942), 624-626.

The activities of the Boston Guild for the Hard of Hearing are described in this article. Included are a social program, hearing-aid guidance service, audiometric tests and practice classes in lip reading.

SHANNON, J. R., and MARIAN A. KITTLE, "An Experiment in Teaching Vocabulary," *The Teachers College Journal,* XIV (September, 1942), 1-6.

An experiment in teaching seven methods of vocabulary building serves as the basis for the criticisms offered in this article.

TIREMAN, L. S., "School Problems Created by the Foreign-Speaking Child," *The Texas Outlook,* XXVI (November, 1942), 19-20.

If the principles of individual differences are understood, the foreign-speaking child can take his place in the classroom not as a "peculiar phenomenon," but simply as a child who is different in some aspects from the others, but like them in many other ways.

VAN ORDER, ETHEL D., "An Outline of the Reasons for Home Visiting," *American Childhood,* XXVIII (November, 1942), 23.

The value derived from home visiting, and techniques to be used in the initial visit are explained in this article.

NEWS AND NOTES

RUTH P. KENTZLER, *Editor*

(Please send items of interest for this department directly to MISS KENTZLER, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, MADISON, WISCONSIN.)

Professors A. T. Weaver, Robert West, and H. L. Ewbank of the University of Wisconsin are offered a special course in Speech Training for Officers. The course was organized at the joint request of the Commandant of the R.O.T.C. and the Executive Officer of the Naval Training School in the University, and all commissioned officers in the two branches of services are required to attend.

In the second semester all of the senior R.O.T.C. officer candidates will be required to take a similar course, taught also by Professors Weaver, West, and Ewbank. This course likewise is being given at the request of the Commandant of R.O.T.C. There is a possibility that a new program of reserve officer training for the Army Air Corps will be inaugurated on the University campus during the second semester and that it will include a speech requirement.

In addition to the course for officers, additional sections in Extempore Speech have been added to provide for students in Mechanical Engineering. This has been made a required course for such students and there is a possibility that it will also be required of students in Chemical Engineering. In the past the course has been given for Electrical Engineering students only.

In order to care for these additional groups the Department of Speech in the University of Wisconsin may be forced to reduce somewhat its regular curriculum, especially in the field of graduate training.

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The University of Maryland organized a course last fall known as Military Speech. It is required of all reserve officers trained in the University, and no candidate can receive a commission in the army until he has passed the course. The course was organized under the direction of Ray Ehrensberger, head of the Department of Speech.

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J. Glenn Ross of Eastern Illinois State Teachers College is now National Director of the Speakers Bureau for the American Red Cross.

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Ensign Henry G. Roberts, formerly of George Washington University, is now head of the Speakers' Organization of the Navy.

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Elaine Pagel has resigned her position in Ohio University and is studying for the doctorate in the State University of Iowa.

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Marie Hochmuth of the University of Illinois is spending this year in the University of Wisconsin studying for the doctorate.

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Over half of the members of last year's speech staff in Purdue University have already entered military service and are now on active duty. In the Navy are: Lieutenant (jg) M. D. Steer, Ensign W. L. Deam, Ensign J. S. Maddox, and F. L. Conger (V-7). In the Army are: Second Lieutenant R. W. Des Jarlais, Second Lieutenant S. M. Marks, both in the Field Artillery, Sergeants D. K. Wilson and E. K. Jerome, Psychological Specialists. Two other members of the staff "married into" the services: Ruth Pittelman is now Mrs. (Lt.) M. D. Steer and Leota Davis is now Mrs. (Lt.) L. W. Horne.

Among the new members of the Purdue Staff replacing those who have entered military service is James F. Curtis, formerly of the State University of Iowa, who is the new Director of the Purdue Speech Clinic. Assisting him are Jeanette Anderson, from the University of Wisconsin; Bette Eikenhout, of the University of Michigan; and Orville C. Miller, formerly of Vanderbilt University. Ross D. Smith, former Dramatic Director in the Agricultural College of the University of Minnesota, is now Associate Director of Purdue Playshop.

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Robert G. Gunderson, absent on leave from Oberlin College, is a sergeant at Scott Field, Illinois, doing classification and personnel work.

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H. H. Brockhaus, who replaced Robert G. Gunderson at Oberlin College during the past year, is now a private in the medical and headquarters company of the Thirtieth Army Division, and is stationed at Camp Barkeley, Texas.

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Currently replacing Robert G. Gunderson at Oberlin College is W. Cardwell Prout. His graduate work in speech has been done in the University of Michigan, and he was an instructor in speech at Syracuse University, 1936-1941.

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Freedom Forum, made up from those who study at the Jane Manner Studio Speech and Drama, New York, held an evening of talks and recitals on November 5 in Steinway Hall. Guests of honor were Marjorie Marrow, Casting Director for CBS and E. C. Steele, editor of *The Freeman*. The program featured "Great Moments With Great Americans."

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The Tulane University Theatre, under the direction of Monroe Lippman, opened its sixth session with the revival of Booth Tarkington's *Clarence*, on November 24, 25, and 27. The production was set and costumed in the postwar period. The second production of the season, produced by Tulane University Theatre and the University Choral groups, was *Pirates of Penzance* by Gilbert & Sullivan, on December 10, 11, 12.

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At the Wisconsin State Education Association Convention, November 5 and 6, D. W. Morris of Indiana State Teachers College addressed the Speech Correction group; and W. Norwood Brigance of Wabash College gave two addresses to the Wisconsin State Speech Association: one on "Co-ordinating Speech and English," and the other on "Where Speech is Needed in This World at War." Gladys L. Borchers of the University of Wisconsin was elected president of the Wisconsin State Speech Association for 1942-1943.

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Lyman M. Partridge of the University of Michigan has recently become Director of the Speech Clinic in Ohio University.

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Richard Woellhaf, who last year was a Teaching Fellow in the University of Michigan, is now on the staff of the Department of Speech in Miami University.

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Robert Gates Dawes, Director of the School of Dramatic Art at Ohio University, was recently called to the armed forces. In his absence Vincent Jukes, Technical Director, and Joseph Batcheller and Charles Niemeyer, Stage Directors, are carrying on the normal program of the University theatre and School of Dramatic Art, with the executive assistance of Earl C. Seigfred, Dean of the College of Fine Arts.

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J. R. Lane resigned his position as Theatre Director in the University of Wisconsin last June, and at last report was about to leave for overseas duties in the Recreational Service of the American Red Cross. His duties in the University of Wisconsin have been taken over by R. E. Mitchell and by John E. Dietrich, formerly on the theatre staff in Purdue University.

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Gertrude E. Johnson reconsidered her intention to retire from the staff of the University of Wisconsin, and is continuing this year on half time, looking after the graduate work in interpretation.

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Waldo Abbot, Director of Broadcasting in the University of Michigan, is teaching what is probably the first University course on Radio Wartime Propaganda. Its catalogue description is as follows: "Radio as a psychological weapon, goodwill builder, and public-relations medium. Analysis of foreign short wave and United States standard band broadcasts. Censorship practices; dramatic, speech, and news propaganda programs." The mimeographed seven-page bibliography used in this course will be sent to any teacher upon request. The bimonthly supplement to the bibliography will likewise be sent to teachers upon request.

Ray K. Immel, dean of the School of Speech in the University of Southern California, was taken to the hospital during the last week in November with an attack of coronary thrombosis. At the last report he was scheduled to be in the hospital for several weeks more and then expected to be confined to his home for an additional six weeks.

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James H. Parke, head of the Department of Drama in the University of Texas and Associate Editor of the JOURNAL, is now in military service.

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N. B. Beck of the University of Hawaii is now in the Medical Department of the Army. He is stationed at Fort Riley, Kansas.

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George J. Peavey of the University of Hawaii is now serving with the War Relocation Authority at Poston, Arizona.

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James H. Reed, on leave from Indiana State Teachers College, is now a major in the Army. Until recently he was Assistant Director of the Officer Candidate School at Grinnell, Iowa.

SOUTHWESTERN COLLEGE LIBRARY

HOWARD SPENCER WOODWARD

Howard Spencer Woodward, President of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION during 1918 and 1919, President of Delta Sigma Rho since 1939, and for 33 years professor of speech in Western Reserve University, died on December 8, 1942. Death was caused by complications that followed an operation. He was buried in Lordstown, Ohio, on December 11, on the site of the family farm on which he was born.

As War President, Professor Woodward was the only person ever to serve a term of two years as head of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION. During 1916 and 1917 he was also its Treasurer and was Manager of the JOURNAL.

At the memorial service held on December 30, 1942, during the national convention Emerson W. Miller fittingly said of him: "Professor Woodward had always a clear vision . . . of objectives. . . . He thought that the principal thing in his field was to train young men to stand on two feet and express clearly and forcefully ideas that had been previously studied and analyzed. There was never any deviation from this conviction. In later years how often have I heard him express the fear that in our anxiety to expand into a multiplicity of subjects and specialties, public speaking might find itself out of the main tent and among the side shows. At Western Reserve University, be it said to his everlasting credit, public speaking was never secondary in importance." As a teacher "he had that rare gift of stimulating his students to excel. . . . His enthusiasm was contagious, and . . . they felt the sincerity of his convictions." To him "public speaking was not a trick, a game, or a method of making worse appear the better reason . . . but a method of seeking truth."

Said the *Cleveland Plain Dealer:* "The few with his genius for effective teaching are born, not made."

AMONG THE CONTRIBUTORS

LIONEL CROCKER, *Editor*

Everett Hunt: *The Rhetorical Mood of World War II* is professor of English literature and dean in Swarthmore College. Surviving a childhood in the Kentucky mountains and the wilds of Dakota, he taught Latin and public speaking in Huron College, his alma mater. His articles in the JOURNAL began in 1915 and landed him in Cornell University for several years. He served as Editor of the JOURNAL, 1927-30.

Alfred Westfall: *What Speech Teachers May Do to Help Win the War* (A.B., Park; Ph.D., Missouri) is professor of English in Colorado State College. He was national president of Pi Kappa Delta (1924-28), editor of the *Forensic* (1924-28; 1932-), and is the author of *Shakespearian Criticism in the United States: 1607-1865*.

James N. Holm: *A War-Time Approach to Public Speaking* (A.B., Kent; Ph.M., Wisconsin) is an assistant professor of speech in Kent State University and has taught in Ohio State University and in Montana State University. He is the author of *How to Judge Speech Contests*.

Evelyn Konigsberg: *Teaching Public Discussion During the War* (A.B., Hunter) was for many years secretary of the New York City Association of High School Teachers of Speech. She is secretary of the standing committee in speech, and was recently appointed city conductor of discussion groups for all New York City High Schools.

Robert T. Oliver: *Living Words* (A.B., Pacific; M.A., Oregon; Ph.D., Wisconsin) is now associated with the Speaker's Division of the Office of Civilian Defense. His book *The Psychology of Persuasive Speech* was recently published by Longmans, Green and Co.

Angelo M. Pellegrini: *Argumentation and Personal Success* is teaching in the University of Washington. He is co-author with Brents Stirling of *Argumentation and Public Discussion*.

C. Harold King: *George Whitefield: God's Commoner* (M.A., Ph.D., Cornell) is assistant professor of public speaking in Colgate University. He teaches biography as well as speech. He has made a study of the social aspects of religious revivals. His biography of Whitefield will appear at the end of the war.

Earnest Brandenburg: *Jonathan P. Dolliver's Senate Tariff Addresses of 1909* (A.B., Iowa State Teachers; M.A., Iowa) taught speech in Lincoln, Illinois. Last summer he received an Ensign's appointment in the Navy and reported for duty in July. He was trained at Harvard as a communications officer and is now on active destroyer duty.

William E. Seelen: *Public Speaking in Missouri, 1820-1830* (A.B., M.A., Missouri) is an instructor in speech and assistant director of forensics in the University of Missouri. He formerly taught in the College of the City of New York.

Thorrel B. Fest: *The Vanishing College Orator?* (A.B., Iowa State Teachers; M.A., Wisconsin) is assistant professor of speech in Albion College. Formerly he was assistant professor in the University of North Dakota. At present he is experimenting with methods of integrating freshman English and speech.

F. W. Lambertson: *Plan and Counter-Plan in a Question of Policy* (A.B., Albion; M.A., Northwestern; Ph.D., Iowa) is professor of public speaking in Iowa State Teachers College. In the December 1942 JOURNAL he had a related article on *The Meaning of the Word "Should" in a Question of Policy*.

Johann Reich: *Why Study Dramatics?* was director of Vienna's most distinguished theatres, the *Burgtheater* and the *Theater in der Josefstadt* (formerly Reinhardt's). In 1938 he had to resign from all his positions because the Nazis found he served art on an international instead of a national socialist basis. He joined Ithaca College on arrival in this country.

Giles Wilkeson Gray; *James Rush, Dramatist* (A.B., DePauw; M.A., Wisconsin; Ph.D., Iowa) is a professor of speech in Louisiana State University. He is co-author, with C. M. Wise, of *The Bases of Speech* and edited *Louisiana Studies in Experimental Phonetics,* 1936. In 1937 he was President of the Southern Association of Teachers of Speech and from 1939 to 1941 he was Editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH.

Lester L. Hale: *James Rush, Dramatist* (A.B., Wisconsin; M.A., Ph.D., Louisiana State) is director of the speech correction clinic in the University of Florida. In preparation of his dissertation on James Rush he studied Rush's personal library as preserved in the Library Company of Philadelphia.

John L. Hamilton: *The Psychodrama and Its Implications in Speech Adjustment* (B.S., Wisconsin; M.A., Minnesota) is assistant director of the department of visual education in the University of Minnesota and serves as audio-visual aid advisor, film production manager, and instructor in motion picture appreciation.

Henry W. Wells: *Literature and the Phonograph* is associate in English at Columbia. His books are *Poetic Imagery, The Reader of Literature, The Judgment of Literature, The Vision of Piers Plowman in Modern English, Elizabethan and Jacobean Drama, New Poets from Old,* and, with Roger S. Loomis, *Medieval and Tudor Plays. The American Way of Poetry* and an anthology of world literature will appear shortly.

Ruth J. Bradley: *The Use of Cockney Dialect by Chaucer* (A.B., Akron; M.A., Columbia) is associate professor of English and speech in the State Teachers College in Willimantic, Connecticut, and has charge of the Little Theatre group of the college.

Charles R. Strother: *Trends in Speech Pathology* (A.B., M.A., Washington; Ph.D., Iowa) is associate professor of speech pathology and psychology in the State University of Iowa. He has published articles in *Speech Monographs, The Journal of Speech Disorders,* and the *Physiotherapy Review* and is co-author of *Foundations of Speech.* He has served as consultant on special education programs in Washington, Oregon, and Iowa.

Hollis J. Caswell: *Guiding Principles in Curriculum Development at the Elementary School Level* is professor of education and director of the division of instruction in Teachers College, Columbia University. He has had wide experience in the field of curriculum development. He was formerly a member of the division of field studies at George Peabody College, during which time he served as consultant for several well-known state curriculum programs.

Wayne Thompson: *Is There a Yardstick for Measuring Speaking Skill?* (A.B., Western Illinois State Teachers; M.A., Northwestern) is an instructor in public speaking and director of forensics in the American University, Washington, D.C. He has taught also in high schools in Illinois and Kentucky, and held university positions at Northwestern and Missouri.

Seth A. Fessenden: *The Classroom Teacher Is Not a Public Speaker* (A.B., M.A., Illinois; Ph.D., New York) is professor of speech and acting head of the department in West Texas State College. He is chairman of the Texas Speech Association Committee on Diagnostic Testing. He has published the *Speech Inventory,* a self-administered speech proficiency test; and his book, *Teachers Must Speak* will be published soon.

Ralph N. Schmidt: *Some Current Problems in Contest Speech* (A.B., Carroll; M.A., Northwestern) is head of the department of speech in Jamestown College. His interest in the development of high school students in the speech arts brought to him many offices including the chairmanship of the Wisconsin district of the National Forensic League and editorship of the *Rostrum.*

Kenneth G. Bartlett: *Radio War Programs* is assistant professor of radio education and director of the Syracuse University Radio Workshop. He is the author of *How to Use Radio,* published by the National Association of Broadcasters, co-author of *Occupations in Radio,* and *Trends in Radio Programs* published by the American Academy of Political Science, and *Assigned Out of School Listening* published by the Blue Network.